





THE YOUNG WASHINGTON warns the obstinate BRADDOCK of the danger of his position, and vainly entreats him to change it.

*Rev. P. and Sept. 9/late
Oct 31. 1834.*

HISTORY

315

OF THE

UNITED STATES,

OR

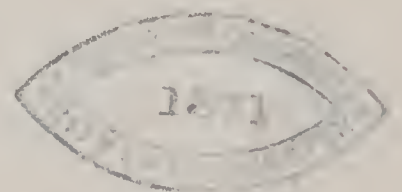
REPUBLIC OF AMERICA:

DESIGNED FOR SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE LIBRARIES.

FIFTH EDITION, REVISED AND CORRECTED.

EMMA WILLARD,

PRINCIPAL OF TROY FEMALE SEMINARY.



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THIS WORK
IS AFFECTIONATELY DEDICATED
to
MY MOTHER,
MRS. LYDIA HEART.

Accept this offering of a daughter's love,
Dear, only, widowed parent ; on whose brow
Time-honoured, have full eighty winters shed
The crown of glory.

Mother, few are left,
Like thee, who felt the fire of freedom's holy time
Pervade and purify the patriot breast.
Thou wert within thy country's shattered bark,
When, trusting Heaven, she rode the raging seas,
And braved with dauntless, death-defying front,
The storm of war. With me retrace the scene,
Then view her peace, her wealth, her liberty, and fame :
And like the mariner, who gains the port
Almost unhopèd-for, from the dangerous waves,
Thou can'st rejoice :—and thankful praise to God,
The Great Deliverer, which perchance I speak—
Thou, in thy pious heart, wilt deeply feel.

EMMA WILLARD

Troy, May 1st, 1828.



PREFACE.



THIS book owes its existence rather to accident, than design. My thoughts being directed to improvements in education, I had arranged for my pupils a series of maps of the United States, illustrating their geographical situation at certain epochas, and combining such historical events, as were capable of being delineated on a map. Classes were instructed on this plan, and brought forward to public examinations. Literary persons passed high encomiums on their progress, and the manner in which they had been instructed ; and advised me to lay my method of teaching before the public. Indeed, I found that, without engraved maps, it would be impossible, on account of the great labour required of the teacher, to continue the same method of instructing my own pupils. But my maps must be fitted to some particular work on the history of the United States ; and burthened as I was with the care of an extensive institution, I deemed it impossible for me to write one. It then occurred to me that I might be able, by various inducements, to command the time and talents of certain of my former pupils, now my intimate friends, and whose names, were I at liberty to mention them here, would give to the public favourable prepossessions with regard to any work in which they might have assisted. I procured the standard authors on the American history, laid down my plan, and employed my assistants in its execution ; reserving to myself the entire liberty of adding, subtracting, or altering, either in style or matter, whenever I should think proper. On their part, it was stipulated, that as they were to follow my judgment, rather than their own, I should not commit them to any public responsibility. I have, however, in the execution of the work, devoted much more of my own time, and written a much larger portion than I had intended, or expected, at its commencement. Labouring with my assistants to make a useful work, I felt a perplexity, with respect to authorship. I was urged by them with many arguments, to assume it, without hesitation. Not satisfied, however, I wrote upon the subject to Mr. Everett, of Boston, appealing to him as high literary authority. His answer, although it would not have censured me had I assumed the authorship, yet advised, as a safer course, to state to the public the circumstances of the case. As I have followed advice from so highly respectable a source, I hope I may meet

the indulgence of the public, for what I fear may seem occupying them with my private affairs. To them the only questions of importance are those which relate to the merits of the work ;—Is it a book from which may be obtained distinct and correct views of the country of which it treats ? Is it well adapted to the purposes of education ?

The principle derived from the theory of the human mind, and from much practice in teaching, that the true mnemonics of history is to associate the event and its date with the geographical representation of the place where it occurred, is the foundation of the arrangement of a former small work,* designed to prepare pupils for the study of ancient history, and also of the one here offered to the public. The system of mnemonics, or artificial memory, consists in assuming something which is an object of sight, separating it into certain divisions, and associating with each division, in a certain order, such abstract ideas as we may wish to recollect. To the common systems of artificial memory there are insuperable objections. They fill the mind with mere lumber, if not with low and silly thoughts ; thus degrading its conceptions, and clogging its energies. The cultivator of the youthful intellect should be no less careful to keep his garden free from weeds, than to water and preserve its healthful and beautiful plants. Yet the effect of these systems, so far as they aid in the recollection of facts, is good ; and if a plan could be devised, securing their advantages, and yet free from their defects, surely it would be found of great use in education. The plan of teaching history here proposed, does, it is believed, secure these advantages ; and so far from being degraded by its defects, the divisions here used to assist the memory, themselves form an important branch of knowledge, as they constitute the essential part of the science of geography. Indeed, were I required to devise a plan for the mere purpose of bringing a pupil to the best possible knowledge of the geography of the United States, both as to minuteness and permanency of association, this plan of studying it, in connection with the history, is the very one which I should propose ; for the event fixes the recollection of the place, no less than the place the event ; and so far from one of the associations being an evil tolerated for the sake of the other, they are both so highly useful, that it is difficult to say which is the more important.

There is not generally sufficient exactness in detailing places, especially in compends of history, to make it possible for the learner to locate their events upon a map. Most writers of our history have been more solicitous to mention the names of the actors concerned in its events, than the places in which they were transacted. It is very

* Ancient geography connected with chronology, and preparatory to the study of ancient history.

natural that it should be so ; for the historian knows that the friends or descendants of those who have performed important, although subordinate parts upon the public theatre, will, if they look at a history at all, look for these names. But the youth, in the commencement of his course of history, is confused by the mention of many names of persons ; whereas the clearness of his conception is greatly assisted by particularity as to places. Something occurs in the study of history, analogous to what is called *coasting* in the study of geography. It is founded on the principle, that a number of isolated ideas are difficult to remember, but if means can be found to connect them with some one common object, the association makes it comparatively easy to recollect them. Thus, the names of a number of rivers, learned without any connexion, are much more difficult to remember than when learned regularly, as they occur along the one line which forms the coast of the common sea into which they discharge. In the same way in history, a number of events, presented without connexion, are burdensome to the memory. But connect them by some common tie, and the mind dwells upon them with pleasure, and retains them with ease.

Accounts of contending armies, which I have sometimes read, have brought to my mind the idea of standing upon the shore of the ocean, and viewing two sea-monsters rise, attack each other, and then sink beneath the surface. I know not the direction in which they are moving, nor their further purpose ; but suddenly they rise in some other spot, and after another conflict, sink as before. Thus, if they fight many battles in different places, each is an isolated fact to me, and I cannot remember the succession. Had these been land animals, moving through various objects, their whole route would have been one line, however irregular its course, instead of an unconnected number of points ; and as one line, I might have remembered it, and along with it, its associated remarkable points. In this work, I have endeavoured, as far as was practicable, to preserve this unity of line, in the march of armies, the track of navigators, &c. and have therefore been particular in mentioning places. When the learner shall have made this association of event with place, he will then have that in his mind, with which he will take pleasure in making further associations of individual exploits. Not, however, that there are no such exploits here mentioned ; on the contrary, it may appear to some, that characters, once introduced, are sometimes dwelt on more minutely, than, in such a sketch, is authorized by that historical justice, which requires that all should have praise or blame, in the ratio of their deserts. But something of the same principle of unity, as has been before discussed, prevails here. Ten actions, performed by as many different men, would be so many isolated facts ; but, if they were all performed

by one man, their relation to that one subject, links them together, and makes them more easily recollected.*

From the account already given of the origin of this work, it will be seen, that when I commenced it, I thought merely of making a work profitable for my pupils to study as a school book. Of attempting to invest myself, before the public, with the august character of historian, I thought not, until I had gone too far to recede. In fact, until about the time of the commencement of the last war, the history of America seems mostly settled; and the compiler of so small a work has only to choose good historians, select, and arrange. Since that period, my guides seem almost to have deserted me, and I to be left, in some measure, to find my way alone. Here I have felt how awfully responsible is the task of making the historical record of the actions of men. The culprit of other tribunals appeals to history; and it is her province to sit in judgment equally on the accuser and accused, the condemner and the condemned. Marching along the broad highway of truth, she must not deviate from her course of moral straightness, to visit any individual, in kindness, or in anger. Such is the spirit in which I have wished to write. I have drawn my facts from the best sources in my power. I have not copied from official reports which I knew to be incorrect; and I have adopted accounts orally communicated, where I had reason for confidence in the knowledge and veracity of the speakers. Probably, however, there are errors in my work, in point of fact; and, whenever, and however, I shall learn what they are, I shall endeavour to correct them.

NOTE TO INSTRUCTORS.—*Method of Teaching, &c.* To lay down a method of teaching any particular work, which will be equally suitable for the pupils of every school, is impossible; because the previous methods pursued in instructing, and the state of advancement of the pupil, are to be taken into consideration. Yet the general system of instruction designed by an author, can be made known; and instructors can then vary, as they shall see that the circumstances of their particular schools shall make it expedient.

* Is not the rhetorical elegance of a historical work, as well as its utility as a school book, dependent on these principles? Is it not an exercise ever painful to the mind, at any stage of life or information, to have a mass of facts thrown together with that kind of generalization, that scarcely admits of any one object being distinctly contemplated, and thus raising a picture before the "mind's eye?" Is it not the reason why novels are so much more interesting to the generality of readers than history, because in novels, the actions stated are those of a few individuals, of whose geographical course we are never allowed to lose sight; which is therefore to us one continued, unbroken chain? And might not some approximation be made towards giving history the same interest by selecting at first a number of principal characters, and keeping them more constantly in view? These primary histories would, of course, be followed by others, which, as the historical picture was enlarged, could introduce more characters, and still keep them distinct.

This work is designed for pupils who are already, in a measure, acquainted with geography, particularly with the use of maps. My own pupils do not commence it, until they are able to draw, merely from recollection, maps of the principal countries of the world, particularly of the United States. The class are each furnished with a black board, about two feet in length, and nearly the same in breadth. The lesson being given out, each scholar is required, in addition to studying it in the book, to draw with chalk, as large as her board will admit, a sketch of that part of the country which is the seat of the portion of history which the lesson contains; marking slightly the track of navigators and march of armies. Each pupil brings her black board to her class room, and her recitation, in part, consists of the explanation, which, agreeably to the accounts derived from the book, she gives of her sketched map.

The marginal notes, it is believed, will afford great assistance to the instructor, in giving questions from the book.

Experience shows that it is useless to require from pupils to commit many dates to memory; they ought, in respect to the chronology, to be perfectly familiar with the dates of the maps; and in speaking of them, be accustomed to say, the map of 1578, or 1620, &c. By learning the events as connected with these maps, and in the order of time, as they usually stand in the book, the pupil will, of course, have a good general idea of the chronology.

It is not to be inferred from the remarks made on the importance of geographical associations, that those parts of the work which are of a nature not to admit of such associations, are to be neglected. Moral improvement is the true end of intellectual. Hence, the propriety of sometimes turning aside in the relations of history, to make such moral reflections as they may suggest; and if it is proper for the historian to make them, it is proper for the student to notice them.

The Declaration of Independence, Washington's Farewell Address, and the Constitution of the United States, should be studied by the youth of our country, as their political scriptures. They are for this purpose introduced into the Appendix. The introduction, which treats of the advantages of the study, will be attended to by young persons to better advantage, after the body of the work has been once studied through on the plan proposed.

The course pointed out must, it is apparent, make the pupil *understand* the study; but this may be, and the labour of the teacher not yet accomplished. The pupil must also be made to *remember*. What he has studied may be as yet only slightly in his mind. In going over the whole work, he has given his attention to so great a mass of facts, that without further exertions, his acquisitions would soon fade from his memory, and he would possess no clue by which he could recal them; he would have no arrangement in his mind, by which he could in future

bring forward his knowledge for his own use, or that of others. After studying the work in the manner proposed, a different arrangement should next be presented to the pupil, and inducements placed before him, which will give him a disposition to such patient and vigorous exertion, as shall be necessary for his repeatedly studying the leading points of the subject, till he has them perfectly in his memory. The preparation for examination in the presence of a respectable audience, gives the stimulus necessary both to teacher and pupil, in performing this, the more laborious part of a well conducted course of study:— and in its operation, it accomplishes the two things which comprehend all that is necessary to a teacher's usefulness and success; one of which is to do well; and the other, to make the public know that he does well.

The business of the instructor, in reference to these objects, is to confine the attention of his class to such a number of the important points of the study, as will be within their power to attain in the time allowed them; so that they may proceed with the hope of avoiding mistakes, and acquiring honour at their examination.

The chronological table, answering also the purpose of an index, has been arranged with the object of presenting a suitable course of study for review. Let the pupil first learn the plan of the work, which of course comprehends the dates of the epochas; next, let him commit to memory the events of the chronological table; not, however, requiring him to give the exact date of the mass of events, but only here and there one; permitting the pupil to choose such dates only as may happen to strike him, and make the most forcible impression upon his memory. It is desirable that each should be led to make the associations with the events of his own, or his family history, noticed in the second page of the introduction. The events being learned, stand in the minds of the pupils as heads of discourse, or may easily be put by the instructor into the form of questions, accordingly as he shall prefer to conduct the examination of his pupils, by hearing them recite the circumstances of the events, (which of course are to be learned from the body of the work,) in the way of analysis, or in that of question and answer. The localities of the history should, in the examination, as in ordinary recitations, be pointed out upon the maps drawn by the pupils on their black boards.

Troy, March 10, 1828.

ADVERTISEMENT.



IN order to pursue the resolution, expressed at the close of the preface to the first edition, that I would correct all the errors in my work, which I could, by any means, discover, I have borne in mind Pope's direction ;

Trust not yourself, but your defects to know,
Make use of every friend and every foe ;

and by the aid of kind friends, who have, at my request, looked over my work with a critical eye ; of a few ill natured foes, who have examined it to carp and cavil ; of judicious public remarks, and by means of a most rigid examination of all the facts related, and a careful consultation of the best authorities, the work, as I do hope, is now free from the errors of the first edition, of which there were not an unusual number, and consequently that the facts, offered to the public, may be relied on. Still all human scrutiny is imperfect, and human testimony, however unquestionable its shape, may be false ; and I should hold myself a debtor to any person who would point out to me any uncorrected error, that it may be expunged from the work in future editions.

Inasmuch as, by the rapid sale of the first edition, I was so soon called on by the publishers to revise and prepare the work for a second, which was to be stereotyped ; it was to me a particularly fortunate circumstance, that two such able writers as Dr. Holmes and Mr. Pitkin, each of whom had great opportunities, as well as talents for investigation, should have just come before the public ; Dr. Holmes, with his second edition of the *Annals of America*, and Mr. Pitkin, with his *Civil and Political History of the United States*. These publications, (differing from each other and from mine in their object,) have been consulted with the strictest attention. Dr. Holmes' work I consider, more than any other extant, the storehouse of fact for American history ; and Mr. Pitkin's, as more enlarged in its views, more just and comprehensive concerning the causes of the great events of our history.

In consequence of some different views obtained from Mr. Pitkin's work of the causes of the revolution, I have re-written the history of the period preceding it : and, in general, the civil and political history of the country has been extended, and the military abridged. The arrangement adopted in the first edition has not been altered, because it

was not perceived that any improvement could be made,* and alterations have been studiously avoided, unless decidedly for the advantage of the work. Several passages of the history, originally written by others, have been written over by myself, for the sake of uniformity in style. The Indian history has been improved, and a sketch of the principal tribes, now inhabiting the old United States, and the newly acquired territories in the west, has been inserted before that period of the history, embracing the last war, in which several of these Indian nations took a part.

As to the utility of this work, as a text book for instruction, I have received several flattering testimonials, and in my own school it has more than answered the expectations excited. My sister, Mrs. Lincoln, whose opinion on works of education, the public will pardon me if I say, I highly respect, has taught classes from this book, and has borne this testimony to its merits, (from which the public will, of course, subtract something for a sister's partiality,) that "it is the easiest book to teach from, which she has yet used."

An abridgement of the work having been called for, one is now in progress, and nearly completed, but it is impossible that it should be made as easy for the pupil to remember, as the work at large, because it cannot be so interesting, as where accounts are more circumstantial; but it will be cheaper, and all cannot afford to pay for the larger book.

Finally, the demand for this work, its introduction into numbers of our first schools, and the experiment made upon it in my own, has given me the flattering hope, that the sacrifice, for nearly three years, of my hours of recreation, and many of my hours of rest, will not have been in vain, but that my efforts will, in some degree, have contributed to disseminate, especially among her youth, an acquaintance with that dear country, which to know well, is to love and desire to serve.

* When, last summer, I presented Dr. Holmes with a copy of my work, he immediately remarked the singular coincidence of my division of periods, with those which he had adopted for his second edition, then in press. As this occurred without any concert, I felt very strongly confirmed by the opinion of such a writer as Dr. Holmes, that I had seized the leading points of the history by which to mark the periods.

Troy, July 20, 1829

INTRODUCTION.



THAT the advantages of history are, at the present day, duly appreciated in our country, appears from its general introduction as a study into our schools. Important reasons may be given to show that every student or reader of history should commence with that of his own country; and further, that the history of the United States or Republic of America* is a better study for youth, as regards the most essential objects of the study of history, than that of any other nation.

* We use the term Republic of America, in the same manner as we would that of the Republic of Colombia. We conceive that America is as much a distinctive appellation of the one country, as Colombia is of the other. Yet the fact is not universally, perhaps not generally acknowledged, except tacitly. Dr. Morse, in the later editions of his geography remarks, that, in common language, this country is called America. A few years ago, however, it was a favourite subject of discussion what name should be given it, assuming as a fact that it did not possess any; the appellation, "United States," being merely a common noun with its adjective, and not allowing a corresponding term to express the inhabitants of the country. In the meantime, we continue to call ourselves Americans—foreign nations called us Americans, and our country America; and the question seems now forgotten, while the name remains.

In fact, the style assumed, at the declaration of independence, is not the United States merely, but the "United States of America;" and it may be fairly presumed that the term America is used in the same manner as in the expression, "the United States of Holland," or "the United States of Mexico," and that we may, except in formal state papers, abbreviate, and use only the last word. There are, it is true, inconveniences in bearing particularly the same name, which is given to the whole continent generally; but nothing by any means new or absurd. The city of New-York, in the state of New-York, is not absurd, nor does any material inconvenience result from this use of words, as it is well understood; but if, while this was the *real usage*, it was not the *avowed* and *acknowledged* usage, there might be difficulties, and authors would fall into inconsistencies. To avoid such in the use of the term America, we have avowed what we consider its established, and therefore its proper use.

We are called Americans in all histories, in contradistinction from the Canadians, Mexicans, &c. This name may be considered, as in fact assumed, at least as early as the commencement of our disputes with Great Britain. In the British parliament and in our own congress, our country, whether abused or defended, was called America; and that in a way to preclude the possibility of the term being used in its extensive sense as applying to the continent. "Whereas," say the first congress, in the preamble to the bill of rights, "the British parliament claims the right to bind the people of America in all cases," &c. The same style is used in all the other public documents of the time. The historian styles our armies the American troops, and our ministers the American negotiators. The poet invokes the genius of our country under the name of America. Our officers have led our troops to battle, under the impulse of addresses made to Americans; nor did the soldiers suspect these addresses to be made to their Canadian or Indian foes, as well as to themselves. Our orators call on Americans to defend the rights, bought with the blood of their fathers, nor do their

When the course of events is studied, for the purpose of gaining general information, the natural order of the thoughts must be regarded, if we expect that memory will treasure up the objects of attention. Each individual is to himself the centre of his own world ; and the more intimately he connects his knowledge with himself, the better will it be remembered, and the more effectually can it be rendered in after life subservient to his purposes. Hence in geography he should begin with his own place, extending from thence to his country, and to the world. In history, the natural order, by which best to assist the memory, would be, to let the child begin with some of the leading events in his own history, and that of his family ; connecting them in chronology with some capital event in that of his country. For example, teach the young learner in what year of the world he was born, and what event of his country happened at or near the time. Pursuing this plan, perhaps you will say to him, your father was born in such a year, so much before or after the date of the American independence ; such was the date of your mother's birth, and such the connecting event—such of the marriage of your parents, and of the birth or death of your brothers and sisters. Thus the record of the family Bible, with a few important national events, which the mother might easily connect and teach to her little children, should be the first foundation of their knowledge of history and chronology ; and this well laid would be as enduring as the mind. Something of this kind is incidentally, if not systematically done in every family. At the period of receiving school education, the pupil having learned the epochas of the history of his family, wants those of his country ; and these will of necessity, connect her history with that of cotemporary nations.

Another reason why the student should learn the history of his own country earlier and more minutely than that of any other is, that he may be presumed to know its geography better, and it is of more importance that he should accurately understand it. We shall read to the best advantage, the history of that country of which we have the best geographical knowledge. But the study of the history of the United States, pursued as is laid down in the system here presented to the public, must give to the student a minute knowledge of its geography in the various stages of its progression.

The attention of our youth to the interesting events of American his-

hearers once imagine that they mean to include the inhabitants of European colonies, or of monarchical Brazil. No, the name of America comes to our hearts with a nearer and dearer import. America is to us the only name which can conjure up the spell of patriotism ; and by this token we know that it is, and is to be the name of our country. And it is a noble name—dignified in prose—harmonious in poetry, and marching as we are in the van of the nations who are forming within the precincts of the new world, why should not our country have the distinguishing honour to bear the same name with the continent ?

tory, in connexion with the geography of the country, will probably, in the result, contribute much to the improvement of our national literature, and consequently to the growth of wholesome national feeling. The imagination of man is to him the darling attribute of his nature. He *will* expatiate in the fields of poetry and romance, and draw from them the “beau ideal” of his heart. Unfortunately from a deficiency of native productions of this class, the American too often locates this imaged excellence within the old world, where the fair scenes of fancy are drawn. But let the present generation of our youth learn to connect the mental sublime of the story of our fathers with the natural grandeur of our scenery, and some among them will, in future life, be warmed to supply the deficiencies of our literature, by filling up the chasms of truth, with the glowing tracery of imagination.

These are reasons why our youth should be directed first to the study of our own history, keeping in view its connexion with our geography ; but there are other reasons, why the study of American history is better not only for our own students, but for those of other countries, than that of any other nation, with which we are acquainted. History, it is said, is the school of politics. It is not, however, the mere knowledge of events, in which the student sees little connexion, which lays a foundation for his political knowledge. It is only when he is led to perceive how one state of things, operating on human passions, leads to another, that he is prepared when he comes into life, to look over the whole moving scene of the world—predict the changes which are to succeed—and should his be the hand of power, to put it forth to accelerate or stop the springs of change, as he finds their tendency to be good or evil. There is no species of events like those related of America for producing this effect ; and the young politician of other countries might begin with this, as the most easily comprehensible subject in the whole field of history. Here effects may be traced to their causes. We behold in the first place a wilderness, inhabited by tribes of savage and independent men. Distant nations, on the mere plea, that they had found this wilderness, sent out their subjects to take it into their possession. At first unalarmed, and little valuing small portions of land, which had not, by the natives, become an object of individual property, they did not resist and destroy, as they might have done, the incipient nation in its germ. But when the colonies spread and began to be powerful, the natives took the alarm, and, as might be expected, bloody wars ensued, whose object was extermination.

Again, from understanding the extent of the patents granted, the young student might, in the course of the history, be led to predict the wars which occurred on account of the first settlers of the country being under different European powers. The causes of these collisions are, upon our plan, addressed to the eye. The student sees upon his

map the English stretching along the sea coast, and settling under grants, which run indefinitely west ; and, at the same time, the French, extending along the St. Lawrence, having received, from their government, the right of jurisdiction over lands running indefinitely south ; thus, large portions of country were claimed by both nations. We can see, that while the settlers should keep along the eastern and northern boundaries, every thing might go on peaceably ; but let them increase, and extend themselves into the interior, and the same land being claimed by both powers, the contest, which follows, is the natural consequence. So it may also be seen that the same ground being, in many instances, granted, by the same government, to different patentees, jars and contentions would naturally arise.

The skilful politicians of the times preceding our struggle for freedom, did, from the state of affairs, and the temper of the times, foresee the war of the revolution before it occurred. So might the learner of our history, if he first obtained a clear understanding of the circumstances and feelings of the English and Americans, see that war was the event which must necessarily follow ; and that a war with the mother country would produce a union of the colonies ; since men ever unite, when pressed by common interest and common danger.

As it respects the most important advantage in the study of history, which is improvement in individual and national virtue, we come boldly forward to advocate a preference for the history of the American Republic. Here are no tales of hereditary power and splendour to inflame the imaginations of youth with desires for adventitious distinction. Here are no examples of profligate females, where the trappings of royalty or nobility give to vice an elegant costume ; or, as with the celebrated Scot, where beauty and misfortune make sin commiserated, till it is half loved. Here are no demoralizing examples of bold and criminal ambition, which has “ waded through blood to empire.” The only desire of greatness which our children can draw from the history of their ancestors, is to be greatly good.

It is not in the formal lesson of virtue, that her principles are most deeply imbibed. It is in moments when her approach is not suspected, that she is fixing her healing empire in the heart of youth. When his indignation rises against the oppressor—when his heart glows with the admiration of suffering virtue—it is then that he resolves never to be an oppressor himself ; and he half wishes to suffer, that he too may be virtuous. No country, ancient or modern, affords examples more fitted to raise these ennobling emotions than of America, at the period of her revolution.

And may not these generous feelings of virtue arise, respecting nations as well as individuals ; and may not the resolution which the youth makes, with regard to himself individually, be made with regard to his

country, as far as his future influence may extend? Would the teacher excite these feelings in his pupil, let him put into his hands the history of the struggle of America for her independence. Though doubtless there existed great personal turpitude in individuals in America, and great personal virtue in those of England, yet, as nations, how great is the disparity in the characters exhibited. England, seeking to make her filial child her slave, refuses to listen to her duteous pleadings, and applies the scourge. She deigns not to give even the privileges of civilized warfare, but sends forth the brand which lights the midnight fire over the heads of the sleeping family, and the tomahawk which cleaves the head of the infant in the presence of the mother. England also descends to base arts. She bribes, she flatters, she sows dissensions, she purchases treason, and she counterfeits money. In the conduct of France too, though gratitude rises in our hearts for her actual services, yet history compelled, though sometimes sorrowfully, to follow truth, must pronounce that in her conduct as a nation, there is nothing virtuous or generous. Unlike her La Fayette, it was in success, not in misfortune, that she declared for America; and if at length she combatted with her, it was not that she loved her, or honoured her cause; it was that she feared and hated her enemy. If America had not taken care of herself, bitter to her would have been the care which France would have taken of her. Her embrace of friendship would have been found the pressure of death. How interesting in her youthful simplicity, in her maiden purity, does America appear, contrasted with these old and wily nations. Who shall say, in reading the history of these transactions, that there is no such thing as national vice, or national virtue?

Will not acquaintance then with this tale, warm the young heart of the future statesman of America, to the detestation of national as of individual wickedness: and to the love of national as of personal virtue? He will say with exultation, my country was the most virtuous among the nations; this is her pride—not the extent of her dominion, nor the wealth of her revenue; this is the source of that greatness which it becomes her sons to preserve! and he will then resolve, that when manhood shall have placed him among her guardians, he will watch the purity of her character with jealous tenderness, and sooner part with existence than be made the instrument of her degradation!

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This history is offered to the reader, as a work of established reputation. Were the Publishers disposed to fill some pages with recommendations, they are at hand, in American and foreign periodicals, and in private letters ; and they may be infered from the distinguished character of many of the teachers by whom it is made a class book. *Troy, 1834.*

TABLE,

DESIGNED TO SERVE THE SEVERAL PURPOSES OF

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,

[By a reference to the figures on the left of the page, the year in which events occurred, is known :—by the device on the right, during what king’s reign, or what president’s administration.]

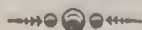
AN INDEX,

[The figures on the right express in what page of the work the event is more fully treated.]

A GUIDE TO THE TEACHER,

IN GIVING QUESTIONS OR SUBJECTS OF ANALYSIS TO CLASSES WHICH ARE REVIEWING THE HISTORY.

[See Note to Instructors, which follows the Preface.]



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1492.	Christopher Columbus, under the patronage of Isabella of SPAIN, discovers America,	24	HENRY VII. King of England.
1493.	He makes a second voyage to the new world,		
1497.	Henry VII. of ENGLAND sends out the Cabots, who first discover the continent,	25	
1498.	Columbus, in his third voyage, discovers the continent,	24	
1499.	The PORTUGUESE send out Ojeda, accompanied by Americus Vesputius, who gives his name to the new world,	25	
1502.	Columbus makes his fourth and last voyage,	24	
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1512.	John Ponce de Leon discovers Florida,	26	HENRY VIII.
1524.	The FRENCH send John Verrazano, who explores the coast,	"	
1534.	James Cartier discovers the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and takes possession of the country for the king of France,	"	
1535.	He makes a second voyage, in which he ascends the St. Lawrence, and names the country New France,	"	
1540.	Roberval sends Cartier to Canada ;—he builds fort Charlebourg,	29	
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Portuguese, English, Spanish, and French discoveries.

A. D.		Page.
1562.	A colony of French Protestants, under Ri-	EDWARD VI
	bault, settle in Florida, - - -	MARY.
1564.	A second settlement commenced under Laudon-	
	nier, - - - - -	28
1565.	The Spaniards destroy the French colony, and	
	possess the country, - - - -	"
1568.	The Spaniards are destroyed by the French, -	29

ELIZABETH.



FIRST EPOCH.

1578.

*First patent granted by an English sovereign, to lands in the ter-
ritory of the United States, given by Queen Elizabeth to Sir
Humphrey Gilbert.*

1583.	Sir H. Gilbert takes possession of Newfound-	30
	land, - - - - -	
1584.	Sir W. Raleigh obtains a patent, and sends two	
	vessels to the American coast, which receives	
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1587.	Raleigh sends a colony under Captain White,	
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1589.	Raleigh sells his patent to the London company,	"
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ELIZABETH.

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1604.	He visits the country, discovers and explores the	
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	don and Plymouth companies, - - - -	"
1607.	The Plymouth company make an ineffectual	
	attempt to plant a colony at the Kennebec, -	"
	The London company send a colony, who dis-	
	cover Chesapeake Bay, and establish THE	
	FIRST EFFECTUAL SETTLEMENT AT JAMES-	
	TOWN, - - - - -	"
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	vered. - - - - -	35
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	pany which effects a change in the govern-	

JAMES I.

Ineffectual attempts to settle the country.

Grants, settlements, govern-

ments organized, &c

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ment of Virginia. Lord De la War is appointed governor for life and the colony prospers, -	35
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1614. The navigation of the Hudson river granted to the Dutch West India company. The settlers at Manhattan resume their allegiance to Holland, - - - - -	"
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Grants,

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Government of Virginia established, - - - - -	"
1622. The council of Plymouth grant to Gorges and Mason, a district called Laconia, - - - - -	"
Indian conspiracy, which nearly proves fatal to the colony of Virginia, - - - - -	45
1623. Gorges and Mason send a colony to the river Piscataqua, - - - - -	44

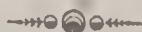
JAMES I.

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1627.	Swedes and Fins settle on the Delaware, -	45	
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1631.	First general court held in Massachusetts, -	"	
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1632.	MARYLAND granted to Lord Baltimore, -	48	
1633.	First house erected in Connecticut, - - - - -	"	
1634.	Settlement of Maryland commenced, -	"	
	Government of Massachusetts changed from a simple to a representative democracy, -	"	
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1635.	Great accessions made to the New England colonies by emigrants from England, - - - - -	"	
	Grand Council of Plymouth surrender their charter to the crown, - - - - -	"	
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	Windsor and Wethersfield settled, - - - - -	"	
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1637.	Harvard College established at Cambridge, -	"	
	Theological disturbances excited by Ann Hutchinson, - - - - -	"	
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1638.	New Haven settled by Eaton, Davenport, and others, - - - - -	53	
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Settlements, Governments organized, &c.

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1650.	First settlement in Carolina made around Albe-marle Sound, - - - - -	59
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Grants, Settlements, Governments organized, &c.

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Queen Anne's War.



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1733.

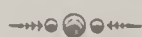
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French War.

GEORGE II.



SIXTH EPOCH.

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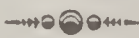
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MONROE.

ADAMS.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS

OF THE

TERRITORY OF THE

REPUBLIC OF AMERICA.

TRADITIONAL ACCOUNTS, &c.

THE earliest inhabitants known to have occupied America, were called by the Europeans, Indians, the whole country having received the indefinite appellation of the West Indies. Of these barbarians nothing was known till the discovery of the continent of America by Columbus, in 1492; yet their traditionary accounts, and the probable conjectures of historians, carry us farther back in the order of time; and as some account of them is necessary, towards understanding the history of the European settlers, we shall commence with such information as we can collect concerning them.†

The most reasonable supposition respecting the great body of inha-

† It seems highly important to give some account of the names, location, and character of the principal Indian tribes, inhabiting the country of the Republic of America, before the commencement of the settlements by Europeans. We are soon led to accounts of collisions between these tribes and the European settlers, and their uncouth names seem to come upon the mind in endless succession; while the feeling of our ignorance respecting them, gives a vagueness to the whole narration, and prevents our taking clear, comprehensive, and satisfactory views of those portions of the history with which they are connected. It seems also proper that the earliest inhabitants of the country should receive the first notice of the historian.

bitants found by Europeans, in the territory of which our history treats, is, that they passed from the northeast of Asia to America. In lati-

Origin of the In-
dian tribes. ————— tude 66° , the two coasts approach near each other; and between them are two islands, less than twenty miles distant from either shore. The savages of North America have a striking resemblance in person, character, language, and manners, to the Tartar tribes who inhabit the northeast coast of Asia.

But there is ample evidence in the remains of ancient works, that a people far more numerous and civilized, than those found by European settlers, were previous occupants of the northern and western parts of the United States, along the Lakes, the Mississippi, and its branches. This strong circumstantial evidence is confirmed by the traditionary accounts of the Indians. The name given by them to this earlier race, is that of Alligewi, or Alleganians, a name still preserved in the most majestic mountains of the country of which they are supposed to have been once the lords.

The Indians possessed no books or written manuscripts. Traditionary tales, and a few war songs constituted all their literary attainments. According to traditions handed down to them from their ancestors, the great body of Indians, found by Europeans inhabiting the territory of the United States of America, emigrated from a country far to the west. The great nation, called the Lenni Lenape, or Delawares, having determined to move eastward, set out in a body. After travelling a great distance, they at length arrived on the delightful borders of the Namæsi Sipu, (Mississippi.) Here they met with the Mengwe or Iroquois, another powerful people, who with similar objects had migrated from a far distant country, and had reached the same river somewhat nearer to its source.

The territory east of the Mississippi was inhabited by the Alligewi, a powerful nation, whose warriors were of a gigantic stature. These people, according to the tradition, had many large cities.* The Dela-

* From this tradition, as well as for the reasons already mentioned, they appear to have been a much more civilized people than their conquerors. Mexico was found by Spaniards, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, inhabited by a race who appear to rank in the scale of civilization, where the Alligewi might have been supposed to be; reasoning from Indian tradition, from the remains of ancient fortifications, and from the dead bodies which have been found in the nitrous caves of the western states, in the condition of mummies. These were wrapped in cloth, different in texture from any thing known to have been made by the Indians, but of the same kind as that manufactured in the South Sea Islands, and in Southern Asia.

It seems, on the whole, probable that it was the Alligewi who constructed the ancient works found in Ohio, and elsewhere; and that being driven from their possessions, by the barbarous nations of the west, they migrated southwestwardly to Mexico, and perhaps to Peru. It is thought by some that the Cherokees, Choctaws, and Chickasaws, who are of a less stern and ferocious temperament, belong to this race, who are supposed, by our ablest antiquarians, to have migrated, in some unknown time and manner, from the Malays of Southern Asia.

wares requested permission to settle in their country, but were refused. Determined to force their way, they entered into an alliance with the Mengwe. The Alligewi fortified their towns, and made a brave resistance. Many great battles were fought, and the slain were buried in holes, or laid in heaps, and covered with mounds of earth. The Alligewi, at length, totally overcome, fled down the Mississippi, and never returned. The two nations who conquered the Alligewi divided the country between them. The Iroquois took possession of that along the Lakes and the St. Lawrence, and extended themselves, by degrees, through the valleys of their tributary streams; while the Lenni Lenape, except a few who chose to remain west of the Mississippi, spread their tribes over the more fertile regions of the South.

Progress eastward checked by the Alligewi.

The Alligewi are overcome, and their conquerors divide their country.

A long period of peace ensued, in which the Indians experienced a rapid increase of their population. In the meantime, some of the more enterprising hunters among the Delawares, crossed the mountains, and discovered noble streams running towards the southeast. They traced them until they came to the Atlantic, which they called the Salt Water Lake. To some of these streams they gave names. The Delaware still retains the appellation of these savage people, although their national existence is extinct. At that period, however, they gave it the name of Lenapehittuck; Lenape, referring to the name by which they seem to have been, at that period, best known; and *hittuck*, signifying a rapid river.

The Delawares cross the mountains.

The hunters, having returned to their countrymen, gave them such a vivid description of the country which they had traversed, of the Great Bay (Chesapeake) and its fine rivers, and also of another great river which they had discovered, (supposed to be the Hudson,) that the main body of the tribe, concluding that this must be the country which the Great Spirit had designed for their residence, crossed the mountains, and took peaceable possession. A considerable part of the tribe, however, still remained west of the mountains.

They made the Lenapehittuck their centre of communication; but extended themselves to the Potomac, Susquehannah, and Hudson. In process of time, the eastern Delawares divided themselves into three tribes, the Turtle, Turkey, and Wolf. The Turkey and Turtle tribes occupied the ground between the seacoast and the mountains; the Wolf, or Minsi tribe, held their council fire at Minisink, about twenty-five miles west of Newburgh, extending from this, their central position, in every direction, indefinitely, from twenty to fifty miles. The general name of Delawares was given to those tribes who inhabited the present state of New-Jersey.

They make the Delaware river their principal seat.

Divide into three tribes.

From the Turtle, Turkey, and Wolf tribes, proceeded others, designated, like them, by names taken from natural objects, or local peculiarities. These looked to the parent stock with affection, and were proud to be considered their grandchildren. This, it is said, was the case with the Mohicanni, or Mohicans, a people who became distinct from the parent stock, and adopted a dialect of their own. Choosing to live by

Extend themselves to the east and south.

themselves, they crossed the Hudson river, naming it the Mohicanhittuck, and spread themselves over a great part of what is now called New-England. New tribes arose from this stock, who, in their figurative language, acknowledged the Delawares to be their grandfather. This ancient tribe at last concluded to enlarge their council house, and admit their Mohicanni grandchildren to their council fire. They also received other tribes, who, in a similar manner, had wandered southward, and settled in Maryland and Virginia.

In the meantime the Mengwe, or Iroquois, who at first settled along the Lakes, had been extending themselves until they approached, in many points, near to the Lenape, or Delawares.

The Iroquois conquer the Hurons.

They had conquered a powerful nation called Hurons, Adarondacks, or Wyandots, which are the only people on the eastern coast, says the Indian tradition, who were not descendants of the Mengwe and Lenape;* but being driven from their country by the Iroquois, they fled to the place where the French afterwards built Quebec. Disputes at length arose between the Dela-

They also subdue the Delawares.

wares and Iroquois, and a war ensued, which ended in establishing the sovereignty of the latter, who, at this time, having been divided, were called, on account of their five principal tribes, the "Five Nations."

Thus far we follow merely the traditions of the Indians. Like those of other barbarous nations, they probably contain a mixture of error with truth; yet there is a simplicity in the story which favours its probability. It falls in with the most probable hypothesis concerning the first peopling of the continent; for it asserts that all the Indian nations migrated from the west and northwest, and is corroborated by the ancient remains already noticed. It is also consistent with what may be considered as authentic in their history, as related by the first explorers

* "The Lenni Lenape, or Delawares, claim to be the head of all nations except the Iroquois or Five Nations, and the Hurons or Wyandots—all the southern nations, all the eastern, and indeed all the nations on this side of the Mississippi (except as above). They say before the Europeans arrived among them, they had 'one house, one fire, one canoe.' That the strangers taking possession of the country, both on the Hudson river and the Potomac, ('each end of the long house of their fathers,') shut up the road, or barred their friendly intercourse. The inferior tribes which sprung from these three main branches were very numerous, and although they received various names arising from different localities and circumstances, yet they were merely subdivisions of the parent nations before mentioned."

of their country. When Capt. Smith first arrived in Virginia, the war between the Delawares and Iroquois was raging in all its fury. In an excursion which he made up the Rappahannock, about 1608, he had a skirmish with the Mannahoacks, a tribe descended from the Delawares, and took prisoner a brother of one of their chiefs. From him he first heard of the Iroquois, who, the Indian told him, “dwelt on a great water to the north, had a great many boats, and so many men that they waged war with all the rest of the world.”

HISTORICAL ACCOUNTS.

The Indians earliest known to the Europeans were those of Virginia. When the first effectual settlement of that colony was made, in 1607, the country, from the seacoast to the mountains, and from the Potomac to the most southern waters of James river, was occupied by upwards of forty different tribes of Indians; all, however, supposed to have originated from the Delawares. The Indians between the seacoast and the falls of the rivers formed one confederacy, and were attached to the Powhattan nation, as their bond of union. This confederacy consisted of thirty tribes; and the whole number of souls belonging to it, is calculated at eight thousand, of whom three-tenths were warriors. The territory over which they spread, contained eight thousand square miles. Thus, in this region, which appears to have been one of the most populous parts of the Indian territory, there was only a population of one to every square mile. Powhattan was the great sachem or werowance of the confederacy which bore his name. The seat of his hereditary dominions was on the Powhattan, afterwards James river, below the falls.* From its extremely agreeable situation, the English called it *Nonesuch*. Soon after the English made a settlement at Jamestown, Powhattan removed to the river Chickahominy. The Indians between the falls of the rivers and the mountains, were divided into two confederacies—the Mannahoacks, and Monocans. These last were afterwards called the Tuscaroras, and extended into North Carolina. The Mannahoacks and the Monocans were united in a grand combination against the Powhattans. Of this combination there were thirteen tribes; eight under the Mannahoacks and five under the Monocans. It is said that these three principal tribes spoke languages so radically different, that

Indian nations of
Virginia.

The Powhattans
on James river.

The Mannahoacks and Monocans, between the Falls of the rivers and mountains.

* The only boundaries which separated Indian nations from each other, were natural ones. A tribe generally claimed the country bordering on a river, and was perhaps separated from a neighbouring tribe by a range of hills or mountains. As the head waters of rivers sometimes approached or interlocked each other, the boundaries thus became indefinite, and this frequently caused wars between different tribes.

interpreters were necessary whenever they transacted business. The other Indians of Virginia were the Nottoways, on Nottoway river, and the Meherrins and Tuteloës, on Meherrin river.

The original tribes of North Carolina were thirteen ; of which the principal were the Tuscaroras. These were settled on Roanoke river, in Bertie, and adjacent counties. Most of the tribe were destroyed, for an attempt to massacre the English in the northern parts of Carolina. Those who survived, soon after left their country and united with the Iroquois, or Five Nations ; that confederacy being afterwards called the Six Nations. The Mackapunga Indians were in Hyde county ; the Chowans, in Chowan county ; the Pasquotanks, in Pasquotank county ; the Poteskeits, in Currituck county ; the Neuse, on Neuse river ; the Pamlico Indians, on Pamlico sound ; and the Hatteras Indians, who were located near Cape Hatteras. The other tribes of North Carolina were but little known.

In South Carolina were twenty-eight considerable tribes. At this period it is impossible to determine the geographical situation of some of them. The Stonoes were probably settled on the Stono ; the Westoes were in the vicinity of Charleston, and the Catawbæ, on Catawba river ; the Congarees, on Congaree river ; and the Yamassees, south of Charleston, not far from Savannah. They were afterwards expelled the province, and compelled to take refuge among the Spaniards in Florida.

In Georgia, extending into Alabama, were the Muscogee, or Creek Indians, so called from their country abounding with creeks and rivulets. Their principal settlements were on the Tallapoosa, Coosa, Chatahoochee and Flint rivers. This nation consisted of two divisions, Upper and Lower Creeks, a part of which are called Seminoles. The term Seminole, means wild, being applied to all the vagabonds of the nation. They were seated on the Appalachicola and Flint rivers, and inhabited also an extensive district in Florida. The Shawanese, or Shawnees, (recently remarkable as the native tribe of Tecumseh) once resided on the banks of the Suwaney river, in Florida, and from thence migrated northwardly, first to Pennsylvania, and afterwards to Ohio.

The Cherokees dwelt chiefly on the head waters of the Savannah, Chatahoochee, and Alabama rivers, and of the branches of the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers. Their territory comprised a tract of twenty-four thousand square miles. The Choctaws occupied the country between the Tombigbee and Mississippi rivers. The Chickasaw country extended north of the Choctaws to the river Ohio, and was bounded east by the Tennessee, and west by the Missis-

ssippi. Their towns were on the head waters of the Tombigbee and Yazoo rivers.*

The Natchez were once a powerful tribe residing on the banks of the Mississippi, some hundred miles above its mouth. Natchez.

The Indians who inhabited the neighbourhood of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, were chiefly branches of the Iroquois, and the remains of the Hurons. The Iroquois, or Mingoes, or, as they were sometimes called, the Five Nations, were a union of so many tribes bound by a league or confederacy. The Mingoes or Five Nations.

By the French they are called Iroquois; by the English, Five Nations; by the Indians of Connecticut, Mohawks, (from the Mohawk tribe, which was the most warlike among them;) and by the Delawares of Virginia, Massawomacs. The nations comprising the confederacy originally consisted of five tribes, three of which were termed the elder, viz.: the Senecas, Onondagas, and Mohawks; and two were called the younger tribes, viz.: the Cayugas and Oneidas.† The Tuscaroras, as has been remarked, migrated from North Carolina, and joined the confederacy at a more recent period. Hence, as before

mentioned, they are called the Six Nations. This confederacy, before the commencement of the English settlements, occupied the country from the east end of Lake Erie to Lake Champlain; from the Kittatinny mountains Afterwards called Six Nations.

and the Highlands, to Lake Ontario and the river Cataraqui, or St. Lawrence. The Mohawks settled on Mohawk River. One of their principal seats was eighteen miles west of Schenectady. The Oneidas located themselves on the east side of Oneida Lake; the Onondagas, east of Lake Onondaga; and the Cayugas, on Cayuga Lake. The Senecas were situated on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, extending south to the head waters of the Susquehannah and Ohio, and west beyond the falls of Jagara or Niagara. Like the Delawares, the Iroquois represented their confederacy under the figure of a log house, of which the Mohawks were the eastern, and the Senecas the western door. The location of the Five Nations.

When the French settled Canada, in 1608, they found the Five Na-

* The earliest European accounts of these people, which are contained in the history of the expedition of Ferdinand de Soto, show them to have been more civilized than any other tribes of the United States, and thus strengthen the supposition that they are the descendants of the Alligewi. The Cherokees have an impression that they belong to a superior stock. The Chickasaws, Choctaws, and Cherokees, are all considerably advanced in civilization. In this respect they evidently form an exception to the Indian race, which, generally speaking, flee from civilized society, and relinquish their possessions rather than their wild independence.

† Each of these nations is divided into other tribes, who distinguish themselves by emblems—as the Tortoise, the Bear, and the Wolf. The sachems put this mark of their tribe to every public paper which they sign. This is called the *totem* of the tribe.

tions at war with the Adarondacks, who lived on the St. Lawrence; many miles above Trois Rivières. The Five Nations conquered the country as far west as Lake Huron, and as far south as Lake Erie. The Adarondacks, or Hurons, or, as they are now generally termed, the

They conquer
the Wyandots,
Ottawas, and
the Delawares.
————— Wyandots, were driven west, and first settled on the eastern shore of the noble lake, which, in the name of Huron, preserves one of the appellations of this people. Afterwards they settled near where Detroit is now situated.

The Ottawas* were in alliance with the Wyandots, and being driven west at the same time, established themselves on the southern shore of Lake Erie. Within the limits of the United States the Five Nations conquered (as before mentioned) the territory of the Delawares, obliged them to put themselves under their protection, deprived them of the power of making war, and confined them to raising corn, fishing, hunting, &c. for subsistence. This the Indians termed reducing their enemies to the state of women. Such was the condition of these Indians when William Penn, 1682, began the settlement of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania. The Five Nations had at that time penetrated down the Susquehannah to its mouth. Spreading themselves by force over all the back parts of Virginia, the tribes now known by the name of Nanticoques, Conies, and Tuteloes, who lived between Chesapeake and Delaware bays, found themselves obliged to enter into alliance with them. They had carried their conquests east as far as Connecticut river. A part of Vermont was once the property of the Five Nations. Some of these people were converted by the Jesuit Missionaries who accompanied the French to Canada. These were called Praying Indians, and removing northward, formed the village of Caughnewaga, near Montreal.

Indians east of
Hudson river. When Hudson first explored the great river of New-York, he found that the Mohawks extended also along the western bank of that river from the head of navigation to the Catskill mountains. On the southwestern shores of Long Island, were the Matouwacks. On Staten and Manhattan islands were the Manhattæ. This tribe extended for some distance up the eastern bank of the Hudson, when they gave place to the Mohegans, or ————— Mohicanni,† who stretched along the same shore, and

* The Ottawas are remarkable for having produced, at a more recent period, one of the three most celebrated of the Indian warlike chiefs. These, we think it will be acknowledged, are Philip, of the Pokanokets; Pontiac, of the Ottawas; and Tecumseh, of the Shawanese.

† On examining the history of Indian nations, much confusion and obscurity is discovered, from the various names given to the same tribe or country. For instance, the Mohegans were known by the following names, viz.: Mahi canni, M hicans, Mankikani, Mahikans, Mahiccanders, Mohickanders, Nahikanders, Manhikans, Manhekanew, Mohiccans, Mahicons, Mahiccans, Mahicanni, Mahicans, and River Indians.

passed into Vermont as far as Lake Champlain. The whole territory, between the Hudson and Connecticut, was occupied by different branches of this nation. Their chief seat was at Albany. The Stockbridge Indians formed one of its principal tribes.

Passing next to the location of the other Indians who inhabited New England, we find in the north several tribes bearing the general name of Taranteens, or Abenauquies, called also New England, or Eastern Indians.

Indians of the northern parts of New England. Taranteens or Abenauquies.

The names of these tribes, were either taken from the rivers along which they were located, or more probably, each gave to the river selected, the name of their tribe. The fact is ascertained that along the Penobscot, Androscoggin, and Saco rivers, resided tribes of the same name. The Bashaba of Penobscot, as the chief of that tribe was called, held a superior rank to the sachems of the different tribes in his vicinity, for as far west as Naumkeag (Salem) they acknowledged subjection to him. The Passamaquoddies were on the west side of Passamaquoddy bay. The Pemaquids were a powerful tribe residing near the mouth of Kennebec river. The Norridgewocks were situated on the upper parts of the same river. The Pigwackets and Ossipee tribes resided near the head waters of the Saco. The Taranteens are said to have been the first Indians who used fire arms. Many of them removed from their original seats, and settled on the banks of the St. Francis, in Canada, and afterwards united with the French in their bloody incursions upon the frontier settlements of Maine and New Hampshire.

In New Hampshire, were the Newichewannocks, on Piscataqua river. On the Merrimack were the Wainoo-set, Pawtucket, Amoskeag, and Penicook Indians. Probably there were scattering settlements as far up as the head of the river. At Coos, on the banks of the Connecticut, a considerable tribe occasionally resided.

Tribes in New-Hampshire.

On the Connecticut river.

Following down this river into the present state of Massachusetts, we find at Northfield, the Squakeags; at Deerfield, the Pocumtucks; at Northampton, the Noraticks; at Springfield, the Agawains; and at Westfield, the Waranokes. Within the limits of the present county of Worcester, were the Quinaboags, at Brookfield; the Nashuas, at Lancaster; and the Nipmucks, in the southwest, extending into Connecticut.

Within the limits of the present state of Vermont, few permanent lodges of Indians have been known.

Stretching along the coast from the mouth of the Merrimack to that of the Connecticut, were five principal and distinct nations, viz.: the Pawtuckets, the Massachu-

Five Nations inhabiting the southeastern parts of New England.

setts, the Pokanokets, or Pawkunnawkuts, called also the Wampanoags, the Narragansetts, and the Pequods.

1st. The Pawtuckets.

The Pawtuckets made their principal seat upon the Merrimack, near its mouth, and extended themselves south until they met the territories of the Massachusetts. In subjection to them, were several other tribes, among which are reckoned the Agawams and Piscataquas. Their number, as is supposed, was once three thousand; but a fatal epidemic had prevailed among them previous to the arrival of the English, which, from the description given by the Indians, is conjectured to have been the yellow fever. Those who died are said to have been of "the colour of a yellow garment." This disease proved so destructive, that at the period of Philip's war, the nation could not boast more than two hundred and fifty warriors.

2d. The Massachusetts.

The Massachusetts were scattered about the bay which bears their name. Their territories extended to the Pawtuckets on the north, and the Pokanokets on the south. The authority of their chief sachem was acknowledged by several minor tribes, among which were the Neponsetts, the Nashuas, the Pocumtucks of Deerfield, and part of the Nipmucks. This nation also suffered by the fatal epidemic in an equal or greater degree than the Pawtuckets; their number of warriors having diminished from three thousand to three hundred.

3d. The Pokanockets.

The Pokanockets, called sometimes Wampanoags, inhabited the country around Cape Cod, stretching along the seacoast, and including what is now the southern part of Massachusetts, and the eastern of Rhode Island. On their north were the Massachusetts, and on their western boundary were the Narragansetts. A part of the Nipmucks, several tribes living upon the adjacent islands, and some others, whose long, uncouth names are seldom met in history, were tributary to the grand sachem of the Pokanockets. On the arrival of the English, this dignity was held by Massasoit, whose seat was at Pokanoket, near Mount Hope, in Bristol. His son, the famous Philip, afterwards resided in the same place. No Indian nation figures so much in the early history of the New-England colonies as this. It was upon their coasts that the pilgrim fathers of New-England first landed; their kindness, at one time, helped to sustain them, and at another, their valour had well nigh exterminated them.

The terrible epidemic already mentioned, had also been fatal to great numbers of this nation. The year after the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, two of their number made a visit to Massasoit. Traversing the country, on Taunton river, they found fine fields of corn; but those who had planted them were all dead, and none were left to gather the harvest:—so terrible seemed the disease to have been, that there was

not enough left of the living to bury the dead, and their skeletons were seen in great quantities scattered over the surface of the ground.

The Narragansetts held their chief seat and the residence of their grand sachem on the island of Canonicut, ^{4th. The Narragansetts.} in the bay which still bears their name. Westerly they extended to within four or five miles of the Paucatuck river, where their territories met those of the Pequods. On the east, they joined the Pokanokets. Under their dominions were a part of the Indians of Long Island, Block Island, a part of the Nipmucks, and some others.

The Narragansetts appear to have suffered also by the epidemical disease. It is related that their number of warriors had diminished from five to one thousand. Their country was well adapted to the Indian mode of life; alternate woods and waters afforded plenty of game and fish, and allowed them their favourite mode of travelling, by the canoe. Possessing, in a greater degree than many of the other tribes the means of happiness, they appeared less ferocious in their character, and the English owed much to their friendship.

The Pequods, once a warlike people, held the chief seat of their nation about the mouth of the river which ^{5th. The Pequods.} once bore the name of the tribe, but is since called the Thames. Their sachem, like those of the other principal tribes, held dominion over several petty chiefs or sagamores; among which were some of those of Long Island, the Mohegans, the Quinnipiacks, and some of the Nipmucks, about Quinaboag. This nation suffered a diminution of numbers not less than those before mentioned, their number of warriors having lessened from four thousand to three hundred.

It is a wonderful coincidence of events, that a disease of such unexampled mortality should have attacked, weakened, and humbled these powerful nations, at a time just preceding the arrival of our forefathers upon their shores. Had they remained in their full strength, it is evident, that with the small means which the first European emigrants possessed, they could not have effected a settlement. In this the undevout will perceive nothing but a happy fortuity; but the pious heart will delight to recognise and acknowledge a superintending Providence, whose time for exchanging, upon these shores, a savage for a civilized people, had now fully come.*

* For a further account of the Indian nations, see the geographical notice at the ninth epoch. The purchase of Louisiana occurring at that time, many new tribes became connected with our history. Their locations, as well as the present residences of the miserable remnants of the nations of which we have been treating, will be found on the map of the present day.

ABORIGINES.—THEIR CHARACTER, MANNERS, &c.

The Indians are well formed, of a copper complexion, with long black hair, and high cheek bones.

The language of the Indians. Their language is, as would naturally be supposed, deficient in arbitrary sounds, and chiefly composed of such as are natural. It is wanting in copiousness, requiring to be illustrated by many gestures, and abounds in metaphor and allusion. These circumstances render it peculiarly effectual in the mouth of their orators, when they would excite passion or quicken revenge. The language of the Iroquois is said to excel in energy and pathos, and in these respects, to bear some comparison with the Greek.

The Indians are grave and taciturn, and seem to delight, on all possible occasions, to make their meaning known by some significant action. Hence, to denote their hostile intentions, they send to their adversary some weapon of war. The tomahawk has on these occasions been most frequently used. In one instance, a bundle of arrows tied with the skin of a serpent was sent by a neighbouring chief to the governor of Plymouth, who returned the same skin, stuffed with powder and ball. The action denoting their intention of peace, is the composing one of smoking the calumet, or pipe of peace.

Their dress. The dress of the Indians is in summer extremely slight, but in winter they are clothed in the skins of the moose, deer, fox, bear, and other animals. Nothing can exceed their desire of what they consider as ornamental. They paint themselves with various colours, and dress their hair with much toil and art. They also wear glittering stones, shells, and small pieces of gold in their noses, ears, and cheeks; but when thus equipped, their embellishments have rather a reference to the terrors of war, than the allurements of society. The Indian considers it beneath his dignity to adorn himself in order to appear amiable in the presence of the females of his tribe; but when he is about to wield the tomahawk and scalping knife, then he prides himself upon his fanciful decorations. The Indian women, however, appear to have less of the love of ornament than the men.

Their habitations. The habitations of the Indians are low huts, denominated wigwams. One of these is erected with great expedition, and consists of a pole in the centre, to which, as a covering, the bark of trees is attached. As they are so easily built, they are abandoned with little concern.

Their food, &c. As the Indians derive most of their subsistence from hunting and fishing, agriculture is necessarily much neglected. They cultivate, however, at intervals, maize, beans, pumpkins, and squashes. Indian corn is an important article of their food; and

after being parched, pounded to a coarse meal, and moistened with water, is eaten when animal food cannot be procured, or the time is too limited to admit of more protracted cookery. Their domestic utensils are very few, and their construction extremely rude. Instruments made of bone or flint are their substitutes for knives; mats serve them for couches, and stone mortars are used for pounding their corn. Their ingenuity is principally exercised in the formation of their canoes. These are usually made of trees, hollowed by fire, and require in their construction much patience and perseverance.

The government of the Indians is a patriarchal confederacy. Every town or family, has a chief called a sachem. Several towns or families compose a tribe, of which one of their number is their acknowledged head. The several tribes, composing a nation, have also a chief who presides over the whole. These rulers are indebted for the origin and continuance of their authority, to the opinion which their fellow-warriors have of their wisdom and integrity. They never execute their resolutions by force upon any of their people. Honour and esteem are their principal rewards, as shame and contempt are their punishments. Their leaders and captains, in like manner, obtain their authority by the general opinion of their courage and conduct. Matters which regard a town or family merely, are settled by the chief and principal men of the town; those which regard a tribe, are regulated at a meeting or council of the chiefs, from the several towns; and those which regard the whole nation, are determined in a national council composed of the chiefs of the tribe, attended by the head warriors and a number of chiefs from the towns, who are their counsellors.

Their govern-
ment.

Among the aborigines, women are the slaves rather than the companions of their husbands. The matrimonial contract is in reality a purchase, and as such is considered by the Indians. Their women are subjected to the performance of the most servile offices: they till the ground, carry wood and water, and are beaten upon the slightest provocation. Some tribes, however, are accustomed to consult their women in affairs of consequence and to give much heed to their opinions.

Treatment of
their females.

The chief object of desire among the Indians is military fame. The young Indian is taught betimes to hunt the deer and buffalo, and is rewarded for his toils by the approbation of the aged. When by these pursuits he has acquired hardihood and activity, he employs his weapons against the enemies of his tribe. The implements of warfare are chiefly offensive, and consist of the bow and arrow, the hatchet, or tomahawk, clubs and spears of wood. Their defensive weapons are targets, made from the bark of trees and other similar substances. Revenge is the first principle which

Their mode of
life principally
warlike.

is instilled into the breast of the American savage : the counsels of the aged, and the example of warriors, teach him that it is weakness to relent, and dishonour to forget. It is a maxim of Indian warfare seldom to give quarter ; but when captives are taken, tortures almost inconceivable await them. Amidst all their sufferings, however, they calmly, and even triumphantly sing their death song, and disdain to manifest their agony by a cry or a groan. The Indian is, however, equally prompt to repay benefits, and is no less constant as a friend, than terrible as an enemy.

Their money. The money current among the Indians, is small shells of various colours formed into beads, and strung on belts or in chains. These are denominated wampum, and are likewise used in every treaty of alliance : each of the parties holds one of the extremities of the belt, and these extremities are composed of black beads, while white ones, placed in the middle, signify that the parties are devoid of hatred or animosity.

Medicinal knowledge. The medicinal knowledge of the Indians is confined to a few simple herbs ; when these are found ineffectual, they apply to their sorcerers for relief ; and as diseases are attributed to supernatural influence, a variety of superstitious rites are performed in order to eradicate them.

Religion of the Indians. The religion of the Indians is of the rudest kind. They believe in the existence of a good and of an evil spirit, both of which they worship ; the one from a desire to secure his favour, the other to deprecate his vengeance. There are among them many pretenders to a knowledge of futurity. The predictions of such are listened to with attention, and regarded with implicit confidence. The Indians have no conception of an existence hereafter, entirely spiritual ; but suppose that their departed friend inhabits a land where the sky is cloudless and serene ; where the forests are stocked with game, and the rivers with fish. They give the first place in their elysium to the bravest warriors, and to the hunters who have most distinguished themselves by exertions in the chase. Their rites of burial have a relation to their superstitions. It is customary to bury the hatchet and other implements of warfare in the grave of their former owner, together with venison, Indian corn, utensils of different kinds, and whatever else is deemed most desirable in their simple estimate of life.*

* See Appendix A.

EXPLANATION
OF THE
PLAN OF ARRANGEMENT.

IN the exhibition here to be given of the history of America, the main object will be, to show the origin and progress of its present race of inhabitants ; more particularly, in whatever relates to the formation, first, of its colonial ; second, of its republican government. Deriving our plan of arrangement from the organization of the human mind, which if it gives an equal attention to every thing, remembers nothing, we select some points of time, with which we associate important events. We wish to take a full view of the state of the country, as it was at those several points of time ; to observe what places were then discovered and settled, and what names they then bore. History can never be read to advantage, unless its events are located. As “airy nothing” seems real, when the poet or novelist gives it a “local habitation,” so the realities of history, without a local habitation, seem but as “airy nothings.”

But in the American history, more than in those of European countries, some such plan is needed, because we have as yet nothing like a system of ancient geography ; and our history, particularly in its early parts, is continually mentioning places which the reader will not be able to find on any maps heretofore extant : nor indeed can we flatter ourselves, that our maps are so full as wholly to remedy this inconvenience, except as regards the history accompanying them.

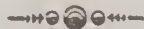
In searching for events by which to distinguish the several epochas, the question has been, what are those which mark most decisively the growth and establishment of the American republic. There are in every history, tales of high personal achievement, possessing a romantic interest in the imagination both of the writer and reader, which invests them with a glare of colouring that places them on the fore-ground of the picture, and makes them more easily remembered than any other ; but these are seldom the passages on which the eye rests when searching for the events which mark the progress of a nation. Thus we

date one epocha by the commencement of that series of patents and charters by which England, founding her claim on the fancied right of discovery, gave the country to individuals or companies of her subjects. But this, although an event which makes no figure, yet as it respects the formation of colonial governments, was an important step. Looking forward to the establishment of the Union of independent states, we make this union, even in its incipient state, the grand object of regard, and endeavour to note the main steps which mark the progress of the confederacy. But we wish to make the epochas embrace nearly an equal period of time, and events of first rate importance follow each other at no regular intervals. We have therefore found it one of our chief difficulties to make these objects coincide: thus we wished to have made the meeting of the delegates from the several provinces at Albany, previous to the French war, the date of one of our epochas; but it would have been inconvenient on account of the maps. We therefore, in some instances, mention another event in connexion with that by which we distinguish the epocha.

DIVISION OF THE HISTORY

(BY EPOCHAS)

INTO TEN PARTS.



PART I.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS, 1492,

TO THE

First patent
granted by an
English sove-
reign to land
in the territo-

FIRST EPOCHA OF THE HISTORY, 1578.

ry of the U.S.
given by Q'n
Elizabeth to
Sir Hum-
phrey Gilbert.



PART II.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

First patent
granted by an

FIRST EPOCHA, 1578,

{ English Sove-
reign, &c.

TO THE

Landing of the Pilgrims
at Plyinouth, after hav-
ing framed, on board the

SECOND EPOCHA, 1620.

{ May-Flower, the first
written political com-
pact of America.



PART III.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Landing of the

SECOND EPOCHA, 1620,

{ Pilgrims, &c.

TO THE

The commencement of
the confederacy, in the
union of Plymouth and

THIRD EPOCHA, 1643.

{ Massachusetts, with
New-Haven and Con-
necticut.

PART IV.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The commencement of } **THIRD EPOCH**, 1643, { the confederacy, &c.

TO THE

Massachusetts receives } **FOURTH EPOCH**, 1692. { territories; eleven years
a new charter, including after Penn receives the
Maine and other large grant of Pennsylvania.

PART V.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Massachusetts receives } **FOURTH EPOCH**, 1692, { a new charter, &c.

TO THE

First settlement of } **FIFTH EPOCH**, 1733. { Oglethorpe seeks the
Georgia made by Gen. friendship of the Indian
Oglethorpe and others. chiefs.

PART VI.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

First settlement } **FIFTH EPOCH**, 1733, { of Georgia, &c.

TO THE

The close of the French } **SIXTH EPOCH**, 1763. { Albany, composed of de-
war; nine years after the legates from seven of the
meeting of a Congress at colonies.

PART VII.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Close of the } **SIXTH EPOCH**, 1763, { French war, &c.

TO THE

The Declaration of In- } **SEVENTH EPOCH**, 1776. { gress. The Declaration
dependence two years reported by a committee
after the meeting of the of five.
first Continental Con-

PART VIII.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The Declaration of } SEVENTH EPOCH, 1776, { Independence, &c.

TO THE

Commencement of the } EIGHTH EPOCH, 1789. { Federal Government.

PART IX.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Commencement of the } EIGHTH EPOCH, 1789, { Federal Government.

TO THE

Purchase of } NINTH EPOCH, 1803. { Louisiana.

PART X.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Purchase of } NINTH EPOCH, 1803, { Louisiana.

TO THE

The cession } TENTH EPOCH, 1819. { of Florida.

The History is continued till the year 1826, the

FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

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HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES,
OR
REPUBLIC OF AMERICA.

PART I.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS, 1492,

TO THE

First patent
granted by
the English
government }

FIRST EPOCHA OF THE HISTORY, 1578.

} from Queen
Elizabeth to
Sir H Gil-
bert.



WE have now taken a brief and necessarily imperfect view of the country as occupied by its aboriginal proprietors. We are soon to behold it usurped by the sovereigns of Europe, from the mere circumstance, that vessels sailing under their protection discovered it. The injustice of this principle may be clearly seen by applying it on a smaller scale. What would be thought by a landholder among us, should his estate be demanded by a stranger, for the reason that he, not knowing before that any such land existed, had now, for the first time, discovered it! Yet, at one period, it seems to have been a principle acknowledged, by tacit consent, among the monarchs of Europe, that countries inhabited by savages should become the property of the discoverer. A ship sailing along a new coast, without once entering a creek or haven, appears to have conferred a title as complete as those executed with all the formality of modern times.

The pretended
right of disco-
very.

Receives the
sanction of the
Pope.

Bigotry and superstition sanctioned these unjust claims. Soon after the first voyage of Columbus, Pope Alexander the sixth, a Spaniard by birth, granted to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and their heirs and successors, all the countries inhabited by infidels, which they had discovered, or should discover, west of a line drawn from pole to pole, at the distance of one hundred leagues west of the Azores ; a similar grant being made to the Portuguese, of all their discoveries eastward from the same meridian.

Appears provi-
dentially to have
prevailed.

That human arrogance should ever have risen to such a pitch, is truly astonishing. There is, however, one consoling reflection, which is, that the hand of a wise Providence is, in these events, clearly discernible ; overruling even the injustice of man to the fulfilment of its designs for the progressive improvement of the world. To this benevolent intent, it was doubtless necessary that the western continent should, in the fulness of time, be discovered and settled by a civilized people ; and these would not have braved the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of a savage country, unless, from a previous belief, that they had a right to the territory which they should discover and settle.

Many thousand years had elapsed since the creation of the world, and the inhabitants of the eastern hemisphere were yet ignorant, that, on the face of the planet which they inhabited, was another continent of nearly equal extent. Nor did they become acquainted with this fact by any fortunate accident ; but they owed its developement to the penetration and persevering efforts of a man as extraordinary as the discovery which he made.

The discovery of
America by Co-
lumbus.

His character.

This was Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, born in 1447. In him were united a rare combination of extraordinary qualities. He possessed a teeming imagination, an ardent courage, a glowing zeal, and all those energetic impulses of the soul which lead to high achievement ; and, with these noble qualities, he combined judgment the most grave and solid ; prudence and patience the most steady and unoffending ; piety the most devout ; and, above all, the most untiring perseverance ever manifested by man. The brightness of his character is the more apparent, from the darkness of the age in which he lived. Science was but just beginning to arouse from the long slumber of the middle ages. From the discovery of the magnetic needle, the mariner no longer kept cautiously along the shore, but, trusting to this guide steered his bark through trackless oceans, in search of unknown countries. The Portuguese led the way in the progress of discovery. Columbus married the daughter of one of the Portuguese discoverers, then deceased, whose widow, finding with what avidity her son-in-law

sought such sources of information, gave to him all the maps, charts, and nautical papers, which had belonged to her husband. Marco Polo, a Venetian, had travelled to the east, and returned with glowing descriptions of Cathay and the island of Cipango, called, generally, the East Indies, and now known to be China and Japan. The rotundity of the earth was a fact admitted by a few of the learned, and fully believed by Columbus, on the evidence of its figure, exhibited in eclipses of the moon. Hence, he believed that those rich countries, concerning which Marco Polo had inflamed his imagination, might be found by sailing west ; and by a false estimate of their situation, he supposed they would be reached by sailing one half of the distance which it was necessary to go east in order to reach them. There might be intervening countries, and in this case he would be their discoverer ; and this, it seems, he sometimes believed, as he maintained that more land in the west was necessary to balance that in the east. His preponderating belief was, however, that by sailing west he should discover the East Indies, and thus open a passage to those rich countries whose trade had now become the great object of European enterprise. This was, therefore, the popular object to hold up to those sovereign powers, on whom, as his own fortune was far too limited, he must depend for the means of undertaking the execution of his projected voyage, through the untravelled ocean, to the unknown regions of the west.

Circumstances which led to the project of Columbus.

The principal object of his voyage.

Columbus believed that great advantages would accrue to the nation who should patronise his undertaking, and, with filial respect, first offered his services to his native state ; but had the mortification to find them rejected. He then applied successively to John II. of Portugal ; through his brother Bartholomew, to Henry VII. of England ; and to Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain. But none of these monarchs had sufficient reach of thought to comprehend the schemes of Columbus, or generosity to encourage them. His proposals had been twice rejected by the court of Spain, and he had spent seven years in a succession of mortifying repulses ; yet his perseverance was still unsubdued, and he was preparing to follow his brother to England, when he was suddenly recalled by a mandate from Isabella. Of all the sovereigns of Europe, this woman was the only one who could be moved with friendship for this great man, and to confidence in the success of his plan ; and, to the latest day of his life, he regarded her as the first and best of his friends. Not knowing how to raise the sum of money requisite for defraying the expenses of the voyage, the queen determined to sacrifice her jewels ; but this was prevented by the extraordinary exertions of her ministers. It

He makes unsuccessful attempts to obtain patronage.

Is patronised by Isabella of Spain.

was under her patronage, that he had the honour of communicating to Europe, the intelligence of a new world.

1492.

His first voyage.

Columbus made his first voyage, the most interesting of any in the annals of navigation, in 1492, and discovered the first found land of the new world, on the eleventh of October. It was an island, called, by the natives, Guanahani; but to which he piously gave the name of San Salvador, the Holy Saviour. In the same voyage he discovered, besides several smaller islands, Cuba and Hispaniola; each of which, in their turn, he supposed to be

1493.

His second.

1498.

Discovers the continent.

1502.

His last voyage.

the Cipango, mentioned by Marco Polo. In 1493, he sailed on a second voyage, and discovered the Caribbee islands, to which he gave their present names. In his third voyage, 1498, he discovered the island of Trinidad, and the continent, at the mouth of the Oronoco. The Cabots, had, however, the year before, discovered the continent of North America. Columbus made his fourth, and last voyage, in 1502; discovered the southern shores of the Gulf of Mexico, and visited some of the West India islands, where he was received in the most inhospitable manner, by those Spaniards who had already begun to improve the sources of wealth which he had opened to them. On his return, finding Isabella dead, and himself neglected, he sunk beneath his misfortunes and infirmities, and died in 1506, in the 57th year of his age.

The priority of discovery claimed by other nations.

After the discovery of America, by Columbus, under the auspices of Spain, other individuals became jealous of the great honour which the Genoese navigator had acquired, and other nations were desirous to share with Spain in the advantages of the discovery. Hence many attempts were made to show that the country had been previously discovered. Of

By the Welsh.

these, the most conspicuous were those of the Welsh and Norwegians. The Welsh brought forward the story of Madoc, son of Owen Gwynneth, who, in the 12th century, it was said, had sailed west, discovered a country, and afterwards conducted a colony thither, which was not heard of more. Suppose this story to be true, there exists no proof that the country found was America. Indeed there are circumstances which show that it was not so long a voyage which Madoc made; but, probably, the region which he discovered was the Azores.

By the Norwegians.

The Norwegians having discovered Iceland and Greenland, during the ninth century, established colonies in those countries. Biron, or Biorn, an Iclander, in a voyage to Greenland, during the eleventh century, was driven southwest in a storm, and found a country, which, from its great number of vines, he called Vineland. The appearance of the sun, as described in the

account of his voyages, corresponding with that of latitude forty-nine, and the fruits which he mentioned, being found in those climates, this country is supposed to have been the island of Newfoundland, or the country about the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Hence, the Norwegians claim to have been, by several centuries, the earliest discoverers of America. But every thing relating to Vineland seems to have slept in forgetfulness, and these claims not to have been brought forward until after the discoveries of Columbus; the Genoese navigator must, therefore, still stand forth as the discoverer of the new world.

The names of John and Sebastian Cabot, father and son, should be remembered by the citizens of the Republic of America, with that of Columbus; for they equally form the links which connect our history with that of Europe. Columbus, by his bold experiment, opened the way from the old to the new world; the Cabots, under the banner of England, following quickly in his train, first visited our shores, and erecting the standard of the power under which they sailed, fixed the government of Great Britain over this portion of the continent.

John Cabot, a native of Venice, had, with his family, settled in England. He and his son were men of great learning, enterprise, and ability. By a commission granted them by Henry VII. dated, March 5th, 1496, (the oldest American state paper of England,) they had authority to discover any heathen countries not before known to Christians; they, defraying the expenses of the voyage, were to possess these countries as the king's lieutenants, paying him one-fifth of all the gains obtained by them. They sailed from England in May 1497, and in June, discovered the island of Newfoundland, which they called Prima Vista.

1496.

The Cabots obtain a commission from Henry VII. of England.

1497.

They soon after discovered a smaller island, which they called St. John, from its having been discovered on the day of John the Baptist. Steering westward, they made the first discovery of the continent, along which they coasted, keeping a northwardly course. Returning, they pursued a southerly direction, but historians differ as to the distance which they proceeded. Some accounts say they sailed north as far as latitude 67 degrees, and south to the Cape of Florida; while others suppose the forty-fifth and thirty-eighth degrees were the limits of their voyage. They returned to England without effecting any settlement.

They discover the continent of America.

The Portuguese discovered the continent in 1499. Alonzo de Ojeda, who had accompanied Columbus in his first expedition, sailing under the patronage of several Portuguese merchants, discovered the coast at Paria; and Americus Vesputius, a native of Florence, who accompanied him, has become illustrious, as he obtained

1499.

The Portuguese discover the continent.

Americus Vesputius gives it his name.

the honour of giving his name to the new world, and thus monopolized the glory which was due to the genius of the great Columbus. He has been accused, by Spanish writers, of giving false dates to his writings, that he might establish a priority of discovery.

1512.

First Spanish discovery.

The Spaniards made early discoveries of some parts of the continent. In 1512, John Ponce de Leon, an adventurer from Porto Rico, discovered the continent in $30^{\circ} 8'$ north latitude, and gave it the name of Florida.

1524.

The French send Verrazano who explores the coast.

The French made no discoveries on the American coast till 1524. This year John Verrazano, under the patronage of Francis I. of France, explored the coast from 30° to 50° of north latitude,* and examined Florida with considerable accuracy.

1534.

Cartier (French) makes discoveries.

In 1534, James Cartier was sent by the French king on a voyage of foreign discovery. He first came in sight of Cape Bonavista, the most eastern cape of the island of Newfoundland, but being prevented by the ice from proceeding farther, he steered southwardly. As soon as the season would permit, he returned to the north, sailed between Newfoundland and Labrador, and entered several commodious harbours; but he found the climate so cold, and the country so uninviting, that he passed to the southwesterly side of the gulf, where he discovered a deep bay, which, from its contrast with those he had visited, he named Bay de Chaleur, (Bay of Heat.) Sailing eastwardly, he discovered the smaller bay of Gaspe, and took possession of the country for the king of France. He discovered, and entered on St. Lawrence's day, the noble gulf which bears the name of that saint; but boisterous weather soon obliged him to return to France. In 1535, he sailed on a second voyage, entered the gulf of St. Lawrence, proceeded up the river, to which he gave the same name, and anchored at an island, which, abounding in grapes, he named Bacchus Isle, now the Isle of Orleans. He continued his voyage to the island of Hochelaga, which he called Mon-

Takes possession of the country.

Discovers the gulf of St. Lawrence.

1535.

Makes a second voyage, and ascends the St. Lawrence.

* Others say he attained the 56th degree, about the coast of Labrador, and gave the country the name of New France. It appears Verrazano approached the coast, somewhere about latitude 37° north; that he retraced his course, and arrived in latitude 34° , near Wilmington in North Carolina, where he anchored, and made a short abode on shore. It is difficult to determine the southern latitude he reached; it has been conjectured that he sailed as far as the southern part of Georgia. He then seems to have resumed his northern course, and to have sailed along the coast a hundred leagues, without making any harbour, when probably he touched at Sandy Hook. It is not absolutely certain what bays he entered, or what islands he coasted, as the description he gives of them may apply to those now belonging to New York or Rhode Island. Verrazano states that he visited the land, in times past, discovered by the Britons, in the 50th degree, viz.: Newfoundland.

trear, and which was at this time the resort of all the Indians of the adjoining country. He returned to Bacchus Isle, where he built a fort, and spent the winter. Many of his company having died of the scurvy, with which they suffered much, he returned, in the spring, to France, with the remainder. To the country he gave the name of New France :—it was also called Canada ; but at what time, or whether from any significance in the word, is not known.

Returns to
France.

In 1540, Francis de la Roque, lord of Roberval, being created by the king, lieutenant-general, and viceroy of Canada, fitted out several ships, and sent Cartier again to this country. On his arrival he built a fort, which he called Charlebourg, about four leagues above the isle of Orleans. Not receiving intelligence from Roberval, he resolved, the following spring, to return to France with the colony, and had arrived at Newfoundland, when he met Roberval with three ships, and two hundred persons destined to recruit the intended settlement in Canada. Cartier, however, continued his course to France, and Roberval proceeded up the St. Lawrence to the place which Cartier had just left, where he built a fort, and lingered through a tedious winter. The next year, 1542, he returned to France with the colony, and no farther attempts were made to settle Canada for more than fifty years. During this period the French, Spanish, and Portuguese enjoyed, without molestation, the fishery on the banks of Newfoundland.

1540.

Roberval sends
Cartier to Ca-
nada.

He builds a fort.

1541.

Returns to
France.

Roberval re-
cruits the set-
tlement.

1542.

It is again broken
up.

Six years after the discovery of the river St. Lawrence, occurred that of the Missisipi. In 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, a Spaniard, set out from Cuba in quest of gold, and with six hundred men landed in Florida, where he passed the first summer and winter. In the beginning of the year 1540, he began his march to the northeast. According to the most authentic accounts, he crossed the Altamaha, Savannah, and Ogechee rivers ; then, changing his course, he took a western direction, crossed the Allegany mountains, within the thirty-fifth degree of latitude, then marching southerly, he went as far as Mobile and Pensacola. At the former place he fought a bloody battle with the Indians, who are spoken of as residing in walled towns, and having a numerous population. Thence penetrating northwardly De Soto remained among the Chickasaws during the winter. In the spring, (1541,) he discovered the majestic Mississippi which he called the Rio Grande. The place of its first discovery is supposed to be within the thirty-fourth degree, five or six hundred miles from its mouth. De Soto, still searching for the precious metals

1539.

Expedition of
de Soto.

1540.

1541.

He discovers the
Mississippi.

of which the natives gave him accounts, but which seemed to fly before

1542.

De Soto dies.

1543.

Expedition re-
turns.

him, penetrated westward; and, in the spring of 1542, died upon Red River. The remnant of his army, having built themselves small boats, sailed down the Mississippi, and returned to Cuba, in 1543.

From these various discoveries originated the opposite claims of the several courts of Britain, France, and Spain, which eventually produced war, and occasioned much expense of blood and treasure. Of these nations, the French were the first that attempted to form settlements in that part of America which is now included in the territory of the republic.

The religious wars which distracted France, during the sixteenth century, induced Jasper Coligni, a distinguished statesman, and high admiral of France, to project the planting of a colony of protestants in

1562.

Colony of
French Protes-
tants settle in
Florida.

America. Having obtained permission of Charles IX. he sent out two ships with a colony, in 1562, giving the command to John Ribault. He first discovered the coast of Florida in latitude 30°, which he called Cape Francois, and sailing north he entered, on the first of May, a large river, which from that circumstance he called the River of May.*

He discovered several others in that vicinity, and sailing up one, which he named Port Royal, he erected, on an island, a fort which he named Fort Charles, and leaving there the colony under Capt. Albert, returned to France. In consequence of the severity of Capt. Albert, the people mutinied, and he was slain. Being reduced to great distress

They return.

for want of provision, they put to sea in a small vessel which they had constructed, and were taken up by an English ship, by which they were carried to England.

1564.

Another settle-
ment commen-
ced.

Two years after, Laudonniere was dispatched to Florida with three ships. He arrived at the river of May, where he built a fort which, in honour of the French king, he named Carolina. From this circumstance the Carolinas took their name. In 1565, Ribault arrived a second time with seven ships and joined the colony at fort Carolina, where he was made governor.

1565.

Is destroyed by
the Spaniards.

The Spaniards, who claimed the country by virtue of the discovery of Ponce de Leon, now became jealous of the encroachments of the French, and sent over Pedro Melendes, who massacred Ribault and the whole company, except Laudonniere, and a few others, who made their escape to France. Melendes took possession of the country, erected three

* Supposed to be St. John river. Various and contradictory accounts are given respecting the rivers discovered by Ribault, and it is doubtful on which of them forts were subsequently built. We follow the authority of Dr. Holmes, who supposes Fort Charles to have been built on St. Helena, or some island in its vicinity.

forts for its defence, and left them strongly garrisoned by Spanish soldiers.

This act of the Spaniards passed unnoticed by the French government, but three years after, the Chevalier de Georges, a distinguished individual, fitted out an expedition at his own expense, and arriving in Florida, determined to revenge the death of his countrymen. He assaulted the Spaniards, and having destroyed most of the garrison, rased their forts, and then re-embarking his troops, sailed for France. These unfortunate attempts, prevented either nation from making further settlements in Florida.

1568.

The Spaniards in turn destroyed by the French.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert has been distinguished as the conductor of the first English colony to America. In 1578, Queen Elizabeth, by letters patent, granted to this gentleman "all such remote, heathen, and barbarous lands," as he should discover in North America, and of which he should take possession; these lands not having been before occupied by any other Christian power. She vested in him and his heirs the full right of property in the soil, and also the complete right of jurisdiction over those countries, and the seas adjoining them; declaring that all who should settle there should enjoy all the privileges of free citizens and natives of England; and finally, she prohibited all persons from attempting to settle within two hundred leagues of any place which Sir Humphrey, or his associates, should have occupied for the space of six years. For these privileges, the patentee was to acknowledge the authority of the crown of England as supreme, and pay to the sovereign one fifth of all the gold and silver which should be obtained from these countries.*

1578.

The first English patent to lands in the U. States.

Note.—Geographical notices are inserted at the close of the other periods, into which the history is divided: but as no European settlements were, at this date, (1578,) in existence, no materials for such an article are afforded.

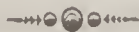
* See Appendix B.

PART II.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

First patent } FIRST EPOCHIA, 1578, { English Sove-
granted by an } reign, &c.

TO THE

Landing of the Pilgrims } SECOND EPOCHIA, 1620. { May-Flower, the first
at Plymouth, after hav- } written political compact
ing framed, on board the } of America.

SECTION I.

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT, on receiving his patent, bearing date 1578, began to collect associates, and to prepare for embarkation. His own character, and the zealous efforts of his brother-in-law, Walter Raleigh,

1583.

Sir H. Gilbert
takes possession
of Newfound-
land.

procured him a sufficient number of followers. The first voyage which he attempted, ended disastrously. In the second, which was made in 1583, he entered the bay of St. John's, in the island of Newfoundland, and in the name of Elizabeth, took possession of the country for two hundred leagues around. This established the claims of England to the fisheries of Newfoundland. On his return, the vessel in which Sir Humphrey embarked, was shipwrecked, and all on board perished.

1584.

Patent granted
to Raleigh.

But the miscarriage of a scheme, in which Gilbert had wasted his fortune, did not discourage Raleigh. He adopted his brother's ideas; and applying to the queen, with whom he was at this time a favourite, he procured a patent, 1584, with powers as ample as had been granted to Gilbert. The same year, he despatched two small vessels, commanded by Amidas and Barlow, to the American coast. They approached by the

He sends ships
to the American
coast.

West Indies, and Gulf of Florida, and touched first at an island in the inlet into Pamlico sound, and then at the island of Roanoke, near Albemarle sound. In both these islands they held some intercourse with the natives, but returned to England without effecting a settlement. They gave such

splendid descriptions of the country, as induced the queen to give it the name of Virginia, as a memorial, that the happy discovery had been made under a virgin queen. This name, soon became general throughout the coast.

Country named Virginia.

In 1585, Raleigh fitted out a squadron of seven ships under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, a man of honorable birth and distinguished courage. He followed the course of Amidas and Barlow, touched at the same islands, and left a colony under Capt. Lane, at the island of Roanoake. The colonists were reduced to great distress for want of provisions, and the next year were carried to England by Sir Francis Drake, who was returning from a successful expedition against the Spaniards, in the West Indies. Soon after their departure, they were sought by a ship which had been sent by Raleigh, with supplies, and immediately after, by Sir. Richard Grenville; who, having sought in vain for the colony which he had planted, left fifteen of his crew to keep possession of the island, and returned to England. Of this small number nothing was afterwards heard.

1585.

Colony established.

1586.

It is carried to England.

In 1587, Raleigh attempted the establishment of a colony of one hundred and fifty adventurers at the same island, under Capt. White; who, remaining but one month, returned to England to solicit supplies for the colonists. The attempts made by Raleigh for their relief were unsuccessful; and three years after, when they were sought by Capt. White, not a vestige of them remained. Appalled by the fate of his countrymen, and in danger of perishing by famine, he returned to England, without leaving an English settler on the shores of America.

1587.

A colony sent under Capt. White which is destroyed.

In consequence of these unprofitable attempts to settle a colony in Virginia, Raleigh was easily induced to assign his right of property in that country, together with all the privileges contained in his patent, to a company of merchants in London. This company, satisfied with a paltry traffic with the natives, made no attempts to take possession of the country.

1589.

Raleigh transfers his patent to the London company.

In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, with thirty-two men, sailed from Falmouth to the northern part of Virginia. He steered due west, and was the first English commander who reached this part of America, by this shorter and more direct course. That part of the continent which he first discovered, was a promontory in Massachusetts bay, to which he gave the name of Cape Cod. Holding along the coast, as it stretches towards the southwest, he discovered two islands, one of which he named Martha's Vineyard, and the other, Elizabeth Island. He determined to make a settlement on the western part of Elizabeth Island, and had

1602.

Voyage of Gosnold.

already commenced a fort and store-house ; when, discontent arising among those who were to remain, he abandoned the attempt, and arrived in England, after a passage of five weeks, the quickest then known.

1603.

Henry IV. grants a patent to De Monts, who sails for America.

In 1603, Henry IV. king of France, by letters patent, granted to the Sieur de Monts, the country called Acadia, extending from the 40th to the 46th degrees of north latitude, together with the sole jurisdiction over the same.

The next year De Monts sailed from France, taking Samuel Champlain for his pilot, and having doubled Cape Sable, entered an extensive bay, which they called La Baye Francaise, (Bay of Fundy,) and on the eastern side of it, established the settlement of Port Royal. Proceeding to examine this bay, they discovered and named the rivers St. John and St. Croix, and sailed along the coast as far as Cape Cod. De Monts returned to Port Royal to perfect the settlement at that place, and then embarked for France.

1606.

King James divides the country.

In 1606, James I. who succeeded Queen Elizabeth, divided that portion of North America, which lies between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth degrees of north latitude, into two districts nearly equal. The southern part, or first colony of Virginia, included between the 34th and 41st degrees, he granted to the London company. The northern part, or second colony, included between the 38th and 45th degrees, he granted to the Plymouth company. By the same patent, the king authorized these companies to make settlements, provided they were not within one hundred miles of each other, and vested them with the right of property in land along the coast, fifty miles each way, and extending into the interior one hundred miles from the place of settlement.

In consequence of these grants, the London and Plymouth companies prepared to take possession of the lands which had been assigned to them. The first vessel fitted out by the Plymouth company, in 1606,

1607.

The Plymouth company attempt a settlement at Kennebec.

was taken by the Spaniards. In 1607, they sent out Admiral Rawley Gilbert, with a hundred planters, under Capt. George Popham, their president. They landed at the mouth of Kennebec river, where they built and fortified a storehouse ; but in two or three months, the ships returned to England, leaving only forty-five men. The sufferings of the Sagadahoc colony, under Capt. Popham, were, through the winter, very severe. They lost their storehouse by fire, and their president by death, and the next year returned to England, considering the country “ a cold, barren, mountainous desert,” where, in the quaint language of that period they declared, “ they found nothing but extreme extremities.” This was the first and only attempt to settle this part of the country, till 1620.

Thus, after a period of 110 years, from the time that Cabot discovered North America, and twenty-four years after Raleigh planted the first colony, there was not, in 1607, a single Englishman settled in America.

SECTION II.

IN 1607, the London company sent out Capt. Christopher Newport, with three ships and 105 men. Among these were some gentlemen of distinguished families, and several officers of reputation, who had carried arms during the reign of Elizabeth. They sailed by the West Indies, and being driven north of Roanoke, by a storm, accidentally discovered the entrance of Chesapeake bay, the boundaries of which they named Cape Charles, and Cape Henry. They stretched at once into that noble harbour, which receives the waters of the Powhattan or James, the Potomac, and Susquehannah rivers. Newport sailed up the Powhattan, to which he gave the name of James river, in compliment to the sovereign under whose authority he acted : and here he chose a place of residence for the adventurers who were to settle in the country. They raised a few huts to protect them from the inclemency of the weather ; and the council who were nominated by the king, and were to reside in America, opened their commissions, and entered upon their office. The infant settlement was called Jamestown, an appellation which it still retains, and though it has never risen to great wealth or distinction, it was the first of the English establishments in the new world, and has all the honour, among the American states, that antiquity can confer.

1607.

The London company send a colony who discover Chesapeake bay.

Settlement made at Jamestown.

The Indians, among whom the European adventurers had settled, were not powerful, yet their tribes annoyed the colony by their petty hostilities. To this was added a calamity still more dreadful : the stock of provisions which they had brought with them from England, was nearly exhausted ; and what remained was of a quality so bad, that it was unfit to be eaten. The scanty allowance to which they were reduced, as well as the influence of a climate to which they were not habituated, gave rise to diseases, and quickened their virulence, so that the number of colonists gradually diminished. In this exigence, they were relieved by Capt. John Smith, a man more distinguished for talents and activity, than any other who figures in the early history of the colonies.*

Their sufferings.

* In the original plan of this work, it was intended to give in the appendix a short account of the principal characters mentioned, but fearing that the volume would be swelled to an

Immediately after the arrival of the settlers, and in consequence of the disagreements which had taken place during the voyage, this officer had been expelled from the council, though chosen by the king as one of its members; but such were his abilities and enterprising temper that he was now unanimously chosen to his seat, and invited to take a chief part in the administration. He fortified Jamestown, so as to protect the colonists from the injuries of the savages; he marched in quest of those tribes which had given most disturbance to the Europeans, and partly by force of arms, and partly by address and kindness to the natives, he put an end to hostilities, and procured from them the supply of provisions, of which the colony was so much in need.

Captain Smith
subdues the In-
dians.

In one of his excursions, while attempting to ascertain the source of the Chickahominy river, he was surprised by a numerous body of Indians, and in making his escape from them, he sunk to the neck in a swamp, and was obliged to surrender. Though he knew well what a dreadful fate awaited the prisoners of savages, his presence of mind did not forsake him: he showed to those who had taken him captive, a mariner's compass, and amused them with so many wonderful accounts of its virtues, as to fill them with an astonishment and veneration, which began to operate very powerfully in his favour. They led him, however, in triumph through various parts of the country, and conducted him at last to Powhattan, the most considerable sachem in that part of Virginia. There the doom of death having been pronounced, he was led to the place of

execution, and his head already placed on stones to receive the fatal blow, when, to the astonishment of the assembled warriors, Pocahontas, the daughter of the sachem, and the child of his fondest affection, sprang through the crowd, flung herself upon the ground, placed her head upon the head of Capt. Smith, and by her entreaties and tears prevailed on her father to spare his life. The beneficence of his deliverer, whom the early writers dignify with the title of princess Pocahontas, did not terminate here. She soon after procured his liberty, and sent him, from time to time, seasonable presents of provisions. He arrived safely at Jamestown, after a captivity of seven weeks. When Smith returned to Jamestown, he found no more than thirty-eight persons within the walls. The spirits of the colony were broken, every individual was filled with despondency, and anxious to leave a country which seemed so inhospitable. He prevailed upon them, however, to remain till the

His life is saved
by Pocahontas.

inconvenient size, it has been omitted. The young reader is, however, advised to refer frequently to his biographical dictionary. The "American Biography" and the "Universal Biography," both contain sketches of the lives of persons distinguished in the history of America.

Next year, when provisions arriving from England, abundance and contentment were happily restored.

During the year 1608, Capt. Smith explored the Chesapeake bay to its head. His superior abilities obtained for him the presidency in the council, and by the wisdom and vigour of his government, he secured the confidence and obedience of the colony.

1608.

Capt. Smith explores Chesapeake bay.

In 1609, occurred the important discovery of a river, which has proved the finest for navigation of any in republican America; and under circumstances which, giving to two powers claims to its waters, and the adjoining country, became the occasion of subsequent wars. Henry Hudson, the discoverer, was an Englishman by birth, but was in the service of the Dutch East India Company. He sailed from the Texel, for the purpose of discovering a northwest passage to India; but being unsuccessful, he coasted along the shores of Newfoundland, proceeded south as far as Chesapeake and Delaware bays, then returning northward, he discovered and sailed up the broad and placid stream, which now bears his name. The next year, the Dutch sent ships to this river, to open a trade with the natives. The Court of England disowned their claim to the country; not that they denied the right of discovery, but they contended, that Hudson, being an English subject, the right belonged to them; whereas, the Dutch claimed it, because Hudson, when he discovered it, was sailing under their flag.

1609.

Hudson River discovered.

While Hudson was engaged in discovering and exploring this river, at its mouth, events of interest were taking place near its source.

In 1608, Champlain, under De Monts, conducted a colony to America, and founded Quebec. Wishing to secure the friendship of the natives of that region, he consented, the next year, to accompany them on an ex-

1608.

Champlain founds Quebec.

pedition against the Iroquois, with whom they were at war. They entered upon the lake, which now bears, in honour of its discoverer, the name of Champlain, and traversed it until they approached its junction with Lake St. Sacrament, now Lake George. Here, in the vicinity of Ticonderoga, a bloody engagement took place, in which Champlain and his allies were victorious.

1609.

Discovers Lake Champlain.

In 1609, a new charter was granted to the London company, of a more liberal nature than the former. The company was incorporated by the name of "the treasurer and company of adventurers and planters for the first colony of Virginia." The lands, which before were conveyed only in trust, now became their absolute property, and extended from the point of land called Point Comfort, two hundred miles each way

1609.

New Charter granted to London company.

along the coast, and throughout the land, from sea to sea. The affairs of Virginia were to be managed by a governor and council, appointed by the company, but resident in the colony.

Change in government of Virginia.

Thomas West, otherwise called Lord De la War, was appointed governor for life. Not being able to leave England immediately, this nobleman despatched Sir Thomas Gates, and Sir George Summers, with nine ships and five hundred settlers. Eight of these vessels arrived at Jamestown. But the ships, in which Gates and Summers were embarked, were separated from the rest, and cast ashore upon the Bermudas, or Summer islands, and as these gentlemen alone had been commissioned to act in the room of the governor, none of those who had reached America, could produce any authority for undertaking the administration of the colony. At this time, Smith was unable to exert himself with his usual vigour. He lay burned and mangled by an explosion of gunpowder; and at length became so ill, that his friends judged it necessary to remove him to England. After his departure, all subordination and industry ceased among the colonists. The Indians, ever on the watch, harassed them with hostilities, and withheld their customary supplies. Their stores were soon exhausted. The domestic animals, which had been sent to breed in the country, were taken and devoured: and, in the extremity of their distress, the Europeans were forced to subsist on the bodies of the Indians whom they had killed, or those of their countrymen, who had perished through sickness or fatigue.

Misfortunes of the colonists.

1610.

They embark for England, but return.

With one voice, they resolved to quit the settlement, and return to their native country. Nor did the arrival of Summers and Gates, the following year, prevent them from adhering to the resolution which they had formed. They embarked and sailed down the river, but they soon returned; for, just as they had reached its mouth, they were happily met by Lord De la War, with three ships well supplied with every thing necessary for the defence, and benefit of the colony. Lord De la War gained the affection of the settlers, and accustomed them once more to subordination and discipline. The colony again became flourishing; but in March, 1611, unfortunately, the governor's health declined, and he was obliged to leave the country. George Percy, president of the colony of Virginia, was appointed by the council, in the place of Capt. John Smith, when he returned to England in 1609. On the departure of Lord De la War, Percy was again at the head of the administration, until the arrival of Sir Thomas Dale, in May. Dale had received from the company power to rule with martial law, which he exercised with such becoming moderation, that subordination and industry prevailed

throughout the colony. The friendship of the English was courted by the natives; and the Powhattan Indians declared themselves to be the subjects of Great Britain, and took the name of Englishmen.

1613.

Powhattans form an alliance with them.

An event, which the early historians of Virginia, relate with peculiar satisfaction, prepared the way for this union. Pocahontas, the favourite daughter of the great chief Powhattan, to whose intercession Capt. Smith was indebted for his life, frequently visited their settlements, and was received with respectful hospitality. During this intercourse, her admirable qualities made such an impression on the heart of Mr. Rolfe, a young man of rank in the colony, that he warmly solicited her to accept his hand. Pocahontas gave her consent. Dale encouraged the alliance, and Powhattan did not disapprove it. The marriage was celebrated with extraordinary pomp, and from that period, a friendly correspondence subsisted between the colony, and all the tribes subject to Powhattan, or that stood in awe of his power. Rolfe and his princess set out for England, where she was received by James and his queen with the respect suited to her birth. She embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She died on her return to America, leaving an only son, from whom are descended some of the most respectable families in Virginia, who boast of their descent from so excellent a woman, and from the race of the ancient rulers of their country.

Pocahontas marries an Englishman.

During the interval of peace, produced by this alliance with Powhattan, an important change was made in the state of the colony. Hitherto, no right of property in land had been established; and it was computed that the united industry of the settlers did not accomplish as much labour in a week as might have been performed in a day, if each individual had laboured on his own account. To remedy this, Sir Thomas Dale divided a considerable portion of the land into small lots of three acres, and granted one of these to each individual in full property, and he was allowed a certain portion of his time in the cultivation of it. Industry was excited by the hope of wealth, and improvements of every kind took place. Assignments of fifty acres were soon after made, and at last, the plan of working in a common field was entirely abandoned. Tobacco, as affording the most certain return, was eagerly cultivated.

The right of property in land established.

SECTION III.

1613.Dutch settle-
ments.

IN 1613, the Dutch erected a fort, where Albany now stands, which they called Fort Orange, and built a few trading houses on the island of Manhattan.

French settle-
ments in Aca-
dia destroyed.

The French, having established themselves within the limits of the northern colony of Virginia, which included a part of the territory granted to De Monts, Capt. Argal was sent from Jamestown to dispossess them. He destroyed Port Royal, and all their settlements in Acadia, and returning, visited the Dutch, at Manhattan. He demanded possession, in the name of the

The Dutch sub-
mit to the Eng-
lish govern-
ment.**1614.**Threw off their
allegiance.

British government. The Dutch traders immediately acknowledged the supremacy of King James, and under him, that of the governor of Virginia. In 1614, the exclusive trade of Hudson river was granted to the Dutch West India Company. A reinforcement was sent to the settlers at Manhattan, when they threw off the English yoke, asserted the rights of Holland, erected a fort, which they called Fort Amsterdam, and held the country, by the name of New Netherlands.*

Capt. Smith
explores the
coast which is
named N. Eng-
land.

The Plymouth company, after the Sagadahoc settlement was relinquished, attempted nothing further for some time, than a few fishing voyages to Cape Cod, or a pitiful traffic with the natives, for skins and oil. One of these vessels was commanded by Captain Smith, whose name has been often mentioned with distinction, in the history of Virginia. In 1614, he explored with accuracy that part of the American coast which stretches from Penobscot river to Cape Cod. On

* The reinforcement mentioned, arrived from Holland in two ships, commanded by Adrian Block and Hendrik Christiaanse. Block's ship being accidentally burned, he erected, on the shore of the river a small vessel, the first specimen of marine architecture superior to a canoe, which had probably ever been finished in this part of America. In this vessel Block sailed from the mouth of the Great River, for the purpose of exploring the coast, and making discoveries. He distinguished by the name of Helle-gadt rivier, the water flowing from Paggank to Helle-gadt, between Manhattan and Sewanhacky, or the Island of Shells, whose insular situation, he now, for the first time, determined. He examined the places in the Great Bay, and sailed to the coast which Hudson had named New Holland, and the English, Cape Cod. Here he met Christiaanse's ship, and leaving his ill-constructed vessel, he embarked with him. After this arrangement, the two navigators proceeded together to examine the neighbouring coasts. The islands recognised by the Dutch, as Christiaanse island and Block island, were probably so named at this time. Christiaanse Eylandt was the name given to No-Man's-Land, then called, by the English, Martha's Vineyard. Block island retains its name. They discovered the bay of Nassau, and the Connecticut or Sickagothe river, which, from its freshness, was named Versche rivier. This river they also thoroughly explored.

his return, he laid a map of it before Prince Charles, and painted the beauty and excellence of the country in such glowing colours, that the young prince, in the warmth of his admiration, declared it should be called New England ;—a name that eventually effaced that of Virginia, and by which it is still distinguished. Cape Ann was so called by the prince, from respect to his mother.

In 1617, Capt. Argal was appointed governor of Virginia ; but he governed with so much rigour, as to excite universal discontent, and was soon recalled. He was succeeded by Sir George Yeardly, in 1619.

The same year, Gov. Yeardly called the first general assembly which was held in Virginia, consisting of burgesses, chosen from among the people, who were to act conjointly with the governor and council appointed by the company, in all matters of importance relating to the colony. The colonists, who, till then, had been nothing more than the servants of the company, were thus raised to the distinction and privileges of free-men. In this assembly, which met at Jamestown, eleven corporations were present by their representatives.

1619.

The first general assembly in Virginia.

In order to attach the colonists more entirely to their new settlements, the company, about this time, sent a considerable number of young women of humble birth, but of unexceptionable character, who were sold to the young planters as wives. The price was, at first one hundred, and afterwards, one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco. To fail of discharging debts so incurred, was esteemed particularly dishonourable.

1620.

Young women sent as wives for the planters.

About this time were introduced also into the colony, by order of King James, many idle and dissolute persons, then in custody for their offences. They were dispersed through the colony, and employed as labourers.

Convicts sent to the colonies.

A Dutch ship from Africa arriving at Jamestown, a part of her cargo of negroes was purchased by the colony ; and these, rapidly increasing, the whole field-work in Virginia, was, in a short time, performed by the hands of slaves. This is the commencement of slave-holding, in the southern states.

Slave-holding commences.

Although King James had granted equal powers and privileges to the London and Plymouth companies, yet London possessed such superior advantages of situation, commercial wealth, and activity, that the adventurers of Plymouth fell far short of those in London, in the vigour and success of their efforts to accomplish their purpose of colonization. But what the exertions of the company were unable to accomplish, was effected by the desire of religious freedom ; a principle which has had a chief share in the revolutions which have taken place in human affairs.

Plymouth company are unsuccessful.

When the light of the Reformation began to dawn upon England,

those who opposed the extravagant doctrines, and absurd practices of the Romish Church, differed as to the degree of reformation to which they should proceed. Those, who, while they condemned its doctrines, thought it expedient to retain many of its imposing pomps and ceremonies, became, in time, the established party. Those who contended for what they considered that purity of sentiment, manners, and form of worship exhibited in the gospel, were called Dissenters, or Puritans. The persecution which they suffered, in consequence of their firm adherence to this belief, induced a body of them, under the Rev. John

A body of Puritans, under Rev. J. Robinson, leave England for Holland.

Robinson, to remove to Leyden, in Holland, in the beginning of the seventeenth century. This situation proving, in many respects, disagreeable, the new world presented itself to their thoughts, as a place where they might form a society, in accordance with their own views, and

transmit to their descendants the example of a church, unadulterated by human inventions. They endeavoured to obtain from King James, the promise of religious liberty, but were unsuccessful. At last, how-

1619.

They obtain a tract of land in America.

ever, in 1619, the Virginia company granted them a tract of land within its limits. With the prospect of enjoying, under its protection, that freedom which they so earnestly sought, they returned to England to take their final departure. Plymouth was the last place of their native shores which they were ever to behold. Only one hundred and twenty persons, however, sailed on

1620.

Sept. 6.
They sail from England.

this arduous enterprize. They performed the voyage, in a single ship, called the Mayflower. Their place of destination was Hudson river, where they intended to settle; but their captain, it is said, having been bribed in Holland, carried them north of Manhatta, that they might not disturb the Dutch at that place.

Arrive at Cape Cod.

Nov. 11, form a civil compact.

The first land in America which they made was Cape Cod. Here, they were not only beyond the precincts of the territory which had been granted to them, but beyond those of the company, from which they derived their right. The season, however, was so far advanced, and sickness raged so violently among many, unaccustomed to the hardships of a long voyage, that it became necessary to take up their abode there. Being without the limits of their patent, as to civil government, they were in a state of nature. They therefore drew up a civil compact,* signed by forty-one persons, by which they severally bound themselves to be obedient to all the ordinances made by the body, and acknowledged the king of Great Britain to be their lawful sovereign. Mr. John Carver was appointed their governor.

* See Appendix D.

After exploring the coast, they chose for their station a place, to which they gave the name of New Plymouth, probably out of respect to that company, within whose jurisdiction they found themselves situated ; or, as others say, after the last place from which they sailed. Fortu-

Dec. 22.

They commence a settlement, and suffer many hardships.

nately, for these wanderers, a desolating plague, which had prevailed among the natives, about three years before, had nearly depopulated the region where they settled ; but they were in an uncultivated wilderness, with no promise of support from their mother country, exposed to the inclement skies of a dreary winter, with scanty supplies of food, utterly unskilled, and destitute of the means, to cultivate a new country ; with no security for future harvests, and surrounded with a savage enemy, with whose power they could not be fully acquainted. To add to these accumulated distresses, they were visited with a raging disease which, at times, consigned to the grave, two or three of their scanty number in a day. Their bodies were buried near the shore, and covered with level sods, that the diminution of their numbers might not be known to the Indians by the discovery of their graves. Among the numbers whom the sorrowful pilgrims thus mournfully deposited, was their well beloved governor, him to whom they looked as their head. They found, however, relief from an unexpected quarter. Massasoit, the benevolent sachem of the Pokanokets, voluntarily proffered them his alliance, and entered into a treaty of friendship with them, which he observed inviolate until his death.

After the first desolating sickness, the people of Plymouth appear to have been healthy ; the privations and sufferings, however, inseparable from their situation, were great. The most authentic historians affirm, that these pilgrims subsisted, in repeated instances, for days and weeks together, on shell-fish, and the wild nuts of the forests.

On no part of the history of the United States, perhaps we may say of the world, does the eye of the philanthropist rest with more interest, than on the account of this little devoted band, now commonly spoken of under the touching appellation of the PILGRIMS. They possessed a much higher cast of moral elevation, than any who had before sought the new world as a residence. The hope of gain was the motive of former settlers—the love of God, was theirs. In their character, and in their institutions, we behold the germ of that love of liberty, and those correct views of the natural equality of man, which are now fully developed in the American constitution.

*Geographical notices of the country, at the Second Epoch, or in 1620, the date of the Second Map.**

The only settlements at this period, within the present limits of the United States, were those of Jamestown, New-York, and Plymouth. The colony of Virginia contained about two thousand inhabitants. The Dutch had erected a fort near Albany, and had a fort and settlement at Manhattan. They were principally traders, and from the best accounts, their whole number could not have exceeded five hundred. Mr. Robinson's congregation at Plymouth, contained but an hundred and twenty persons; so that we may calculate the whole European population in the country, to have been about two thousand six hundred. In Virginia, the colonists had already commenced the cultivation of tobacco, and considerable quantities were exported. We are informed that sassafras was also, at this period, an article of exportation.

Year in which
they died.

Catalogue of persons distinguished in the American History, whose death occurred in the period previous to the Second Epoch, 1620.

- 1584.** HUMPHREY GILBERT, a distinguished navigator, and the first Englishman to whom a patent in America was granted.
- 1607.** BARTHOLOMEW GOSNOLD, the first navigator who sailed directly across the Atlantic to the American coast.
- 1611.** HENRY HUDSON, the discoverer of the river which bears his name.
- 1618.** THOMAS WEST, Lord De la War, governor of Virginia.

* The first Epoch of this history, containing merely an account of the discovery of America, and there being no settlements made at the date of the last Map, an account of the geography of the country, cannot of course be written. Efforts have been made to obtain a knowledge of the geography of the colonies, at the different periods of the history; but from the difficulties of obtaining accurate information, these accounts must necessarily be imperfect, and perhaps, in some cases, erroneous. The authorities from which these accounts are principally taken, are Holmes' American Annals, and in the last periods of the history, the old edition of Morse's Universal Geography.

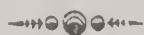
PART III.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Landing of the } **SECOND EPOCH, 1620,** { Pilgrims, &c.

TO THE

The commencement of } **THIRD EPOCH, 1643.** { Massachusetts, with
the confederacy, in the } New-Haven and Con-
union of Plymouth and } necticut.



SECTION I.

IN November, 1620, the same month in which the Puritans arrived on the American coast, James I. issued a charter to the duke of Lenox, the marquisses of Buckingham and Hamilton, the earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and thirty-four associates, styling them the "Grand Council of Plymouth, for planting and governing New England, in America." This patent granted them the territory between the "fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and extending throughout the main land, from sea to sea." The territory granted them, which had been previously called North Virginia, now received the name of New England, by royal authority. From this patent were derived all the subsequent grants, under which the New England colonies were settled. Although the same powers and privileges were granted to the council of Plymouth, which had been given to the Virginia company, yet nothing effectual was done by them towards colonization. Their territory must have remained unoccupied, if the same causes which occasioned the emigration of the Puritans, had not continued to operate, till they eventually planted other colonies within its limits.

1620.

Grand Council
of Plymouth.

The settlers at New Plymouth, before their departure, connected themselves with a company of adventurers in England, to whom was reserved a share of their trading profits. This, however, was purchased by the colonists,

Connection of
the Plymouth
colony with
England.

1621.

They obtain the
right of soil.

and the connection ceased, after seven years. In 1621, they obtained, from the Grand Council of Plymouth, a patent, granting them a right to the soil on which they had established themselves. They continued, however, under the form of government which they had assumed, without possessing the security of a royal charter.

1621.

Nova Scotia
granted to Wil-
liam Alexander.

In 1621, King James granted to William Alexander, a Scotchman, a patent for the territory, "bounded north, east, and south, by the river St. Lawrence and the ocean, and west, by the river St. Croix." To this was then given the present name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. It was a part of the lands granted by the French king to De Monts, in 1603, and has since been the subject of contest between Great Britain and France.

1621.

New Nether-
lands granted to
the Dutch W. I.
company.

In 1621, Holland, desirous of establishing a colony in America, granted to the Dutch West India Company, the extensive territory on both sides of the Hudson, called New Netherlands. Its boundaries were indefinite, but were supposed by the company to include the Connecticut river on the east, and the Delaware on the south.

Grant to Mason.

The same year, the Grand Council of Plymouth, granted to John Mason the lands from Naumkeag, (now Salem,) to the Merrimac. This district was called Marianna.

1622.

Grant to Gorges
and Mason.

In 1622, they assigned to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and John Mason, jointly, all the lands between the Merrimac and Sagadahoc, extending from the ocean, west to the rivers of Canada; and this district was called Laconia.

1623.

Settlement on
the Piscataqua.

The next year, they sent over a few persons, to establish a colony and fishery at the river Piscataqua. They fixed a temporary residence, on the west side of this river, near its mouth. Two of the company erected a fish house, at the place of the present town of Dover.

The Dutch
erect Fort Nas-
sau.

The Dutch, this year, began the defence of the country which they claimed, by erecting Fort Nassau, on the Delaware, or South river.

1621.

The Va. colony
receives acces-
sions, and a per-
manent constitu-
tion.

The Virginia colony continued to enjoy great prosperity. In 1621, Sir Francis Wyat arrived, as governor, with seven hundred people, bringing from the company in England, a more perfect and permanent constitution for the colony. The power of making laws and regulations, was vested in the general assembly; but to the governor, was reserved a negative voice. No laws, however, could be enforced, until they had received the sanction of the general court of

the company in England. At the same time, the orders of the company were not binding upon the colony, without the sanction of their assembly.

The next year, this colony experienced a blow which had nearly proved fatal. Powhattan, the Indian chief, was dead, and was succeeded by his son, Opechancanough, who, with no small address, formed a conspiracy to massacre the English; and during four years, was concerting, with impenetrable secrecy, the means of perpetrating it. To each tribe, its station was allotted; and the part it was to act, prescribed. On the 22d of March, 1622, at mid-day, they rushed upon the English, in all their settlements, and butchered men, women, and children, without pity or remorse. In one hour, nearly a fourth part of the whole colony was cut off. The slaughter would have been universal, if compassion, or a sense of duty, had not moved a converted Indian, to whom the secret was communicated, to reveal it to his master, on the night before the massacre. This was done in time to save Jamestown, and some adjacent settlements. A bloody war ensued; but the English, by their arms and discipline, were more than a match for the Indians, and they retaliated upon them in such a manner, as left the colony, for a long period, free from savage molestation.

1622.

Indian conspiracy in Va.

In 1624, the London company, which had settled Virginia, was dissolved by King James, and its rights and privileges returned to the crown. The pretext for this act of James, was the calamities which had befallen the province, and the dissensions which had agitated the company. James appointed a council of twelve persons, to take the temporary direction of affairs in Virginia, that he might have leisure to frame, with deliberate consideration, proper regulations for the permanent government of the colony. Pleased with such an opportunity of exercising his talents as a legislator, he began to turn his attention to the subject; but death prevented him from completing his plan.

1624.

London company dissolved, and Virginia becomes a royal province.

Charles I. who succeeded James, in 1625, adopted the opinions of his father, with regard to the American settlements; and, during a great part of his reign, the colonists were deprived of all share in the government.

In 1627, a number of Swedes and Fins, sent by Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, landed at Cape Henlopen, which, from its beauty, they called Paradise Point. The river they called Swedeland Stream, and the country, New Sweden. In 1629, the Dutch purchased a tract of land, on the west side of the Delaware, near Cape Henlopen. This nation, as well as the Swedes, claiming the country, dissensions arose among those who afterwards settled there.

1627.

Swedes settle on the Delaware, and in 1629, the Dutch.

The tranquillity which the Puritans enjoyed at New Plymouth, and the sufferings, to which those who held the same opinions, were exposed in England, induced Mr. White, a dissenting minister of Dorchester, to form the design of planting a new colony, in that part of

Attempts to settle Mass. ; in 1628, a patent granted for that purpose.

America, where his brethren were settled. Encouraged by him, as early as 1624, a few persons established themselves, first at Cape Ann, and afterwards at Naumkeag. Their representations of the country, induced several gentlemen of Dorchester, to obtain of the Grand Council of Plymouth, in 1628, a patent of that part of New-England, which lies between three miles north of the Merrimac river, and three miles to the south of Charles river, and extending from the Atlantic to the South sea. Through the influence of Mr. White, the grantees associated themselves with a number of persons, who were desirous of finding an asylum for the enjoyment of religious liberty, who afterwards purchased the shares of most of the original proprietors.

Salem settled.

The same year, Mr. John Endicot, one of the purchasers, conducted one hundred planters to America. They settled at Naumkeag, to which they gave the name of Salem, expressive of the peaceful asylum which it afforded them. This was the first permanent settlement in Massachusetts.

1629.

Royal charter granted to the Mass. company.

The next year, the proprietors obtained of King Charles, a charter confirming the patent of the council of Plymouth, and conveying to them powers of government. They were incorporated by the name of the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New-England." The first general court of the company was held in England, when they fixed upon a form of government for the colony, and appointed John Endicot governor. About three hundred persons sailed for America, during this year, a part of whom joined Mr. Endicot at Salem, and the remainder, exploring the coast for a better station, laid the foundation of Charlestown.

Charlestown founded.

Many gentlemen of distinction had formed the design of removing to New England, but foreseeing that difficulties would arise, from being governed by persons at so great a distance, the company, at their request, transferred the powers of their charter, to those members who should settle in New England.

1629.

Powers of gov't. transferred to N. England.

In consequence of this change, about fifteen hundred persons, during the year 1630, embarked for America. These laid the foundation of Boston, and other towns in its vicinity. By the royal charter, which had been transferred to them, they were empowered to elect from among themselves, annually, a governor, deputy-governor, and eighteen assistants; and to hold four general

1630.

Boston settled.

Powers granted by charter.

courts, every year, for the purpose of choosing officers, and making such laws and ordinances, as were necessary for the good of the colony ; provided they were not repugnant to the laws of England. This charter, as well as the one granted to Virginia, conferred on the colonists, all the privileges of native Englishmen.

The first general court of the colony was held at Boston, in 1631, at which time John Winthrop was elected governor, and Thomas Dudley, deputy-governor.

1631.

First court held at Boston.

In 1629, John Wheelright, and other planters in Massachusetts, purchased of the Indians, a tract of land between the rivers Piscataqua and Merrimac. The same year, John Mason procured of the Grand Council of Plymouth, a grant of that part of the territory which had, in 1622, been granted to Mason and Gorges, lying between

1629.

the Merrimac and Piscataqua, and extending sixty miles from the sea. It included the whole of Wheelright's purchase, and was called New Hampshire. Smaller portions of this territory were afterwards granted to adventurers, and thus, the history of the first attempts to settle this state, is perplexed by the interfering claims of these different proprietors.

New Hampshire granted to Mason and others.

The first permanent settlements in Maine, were made at Kittery and York, about the year 1630.

1630.

First settlement of Maine.

In 1630, Charles I. granted to Sir Robert Heath, all the territory between 30° and 36° of north latitude ; and extending from the Atlantic ocean to the South sea, by the name of Carolina. Under this grant no settlement was made.

Carolina granted.

SECTION II.

IN 1631, William Clayborne obtained from Charles I. a license to traffic in those parts of America, for which there was not already a patent granted for similar purposes. Clayborne planted a colony in Kent island in Chesapeake bay, opposite to where Annapolis now stands.

1631.

Colony planted on Kent island.

About the same time George Calvert, (Lord Baltimore) a distinguished Roman Catholic, having ascertained that the territory on both sides of the Chesapeake was inhabited only by the natives, formed the design of planting there a colony. He had made a voyage to Virginia, intending to settle there, that he might enjoy undisturbed, the rights of conscience ; but here persecution followed him, and he found it necessary to seek

1632.

Maryland granted to Lord Baltimore.

elsewhere an asylum. He explored the country, and obtained from Charles a grant of territory on the Chesapeake, which, in honour of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the Great, of France, he named Maryland. He died at London, 1632, before his grant was fully completed, and his son Cecil obtained the grant intended for his father. By this patent, he held the country, from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude ; and thus, by a mere act of the crown, what had long before been granted to Virginia, was taken away from her, as what was now granted to Lord Baltimore, was subsequently given to Penn, to the extent of a whole degree. Hence, long and obstinate altercations arose between the descendants of Penn and Lord Baltimore. Cecil appointed his brother Leonard Calvert, governor, who, with two hundred emigrants, sailed for America, near the close of 1633,

1634.

A settlement is commenced, and the colony flourishes.

and arrived at the Potomac early in 1634. Here they purchased of the natives, Yamaco, one of their settlements, to which he gave the name of St. Mary. He secured, by this pacific course, comfortable habitations, some improved lands, and the friendship of the natives.

Other circumstances served to increase the prosperity of the colony. The country was pleasant, great religious freedom existed, and a liberal charter had been granted, which allowed the proprietor, aided by the freemen, to pass laws, without reserving to the crown the right of rejecting them. Emigrants accordingly soon flocked to the province from the other colonies, and from England.

In 1633, the first house was erected in Connecticut. A party from the Plymouth colony, having been invited by the natives, sailed to the river Connecticut, carrying with them materials for a house. The

1633.

First house erected in Connecticut.

Dutch, at New Netherlands, having anticipated their design, had just erected a fort, which they called Good Hope, on the spot where Hartford now stands. As the Plymouth adventurers approached, the Dutch forbade them to proceed ; but the commander, disregarding their

threats, proceeded to the place, afterwards called Windsor, where he erected a trading house.

As the settlements in Massachusetts had become numerous, and had already extended more than thirty miles from Boston, it became im-

1634.

Government of Massachusetts is changed, &c.

practicable for all the freemen to attend the general court. This led to an innovation which altered the constitution of the government from a *simple* to a *representative democracy*. It was made lawful for “the freemen

of every town to choose two or three of their own number, to confer of, and prepare such public business, as by them shall be thought fit to consider of at the next general court ;” and it was ordained, that these persons should have the full power and voices of all the freemen, for whom they were chosen, to act. An exception was, however, made in

the case of election to offices, in which every freeman was, as heretofore, to give his own vote. For this purpose, the whole body of freemen met once a year, to hold the court of election. Besides this, three other general courts were holden in a year, by the representatives, which number was, however, soon limited. For many years, none but church members were allowed the privileges of freemen. The power of calling courts of justice, not being granted by charter, it was assumed by the colonists; referring, however, in certain cases, a final decision to the general court. The Mosaic laws were made the basis of their criminal code.

The oppressive government, under which England continued to suffer, caused an increase of emigration to the colony of Massachusetts. During the year 1635, about 3000 persons arrived, among whom were Hugh Peters and Henry Vane. These persons, during the supremacy of Cromwell, were distinguished on a more conspicuous theatre. Mr. Vane, by an affectation of superior wisdom and piety, soon became the favourite of the people; and the next year after his arrival, he was made governor of the colony.

1635.

Emigration to
Massachusetts.

In 1634, the king placed the government of the colonies in the hands of commissioners, who were authorized, besides assuming the control of several affairs, which, by charter, had been left with the colonists, to do whatever they should judge necessary, "for the wholesome government and protection of the colonies, and the people therein abiding." This arbitrary commission had reference principally to New England; for, at this early period, a complaint was made of Massachusetts, that she wished for independence, that she had extended her limits beyond what her charter prescribed, and had been intolerant in matters of religion. The appointment of a governor general over the New England colonies was threatened. The people, greatly alarmed, at once resolved to oppose this measure. Sir Ferdinando Gorges was to have been the first governor, but the ship, intended to bring him to New England, fell to pieces in launching, which frustrated the design. The numerous emigrations to America became displeasing to the British government, and one of the first acts of the commissioners appointed over the colonies, was an edict to prevent "the promiscuous and disorderly departure, out of the realm, to America."

1634.

Commissioners
appointed over
the colonies.

An attempt is
made to estab-
lish a general
government in
New England.

Emigration from
Great Britain
prohibited.

The next year, the Grand Council of Plymouth surrendered their charter to the crown; assigning, as the principal reason, that Massachusetts had extended her limits beyond what was prescribed by charter; and had

1635.

Charter of the
council of Ply-
mouth, is surren-
dered.

made herself independent of them in civil, as well as ecclesiastical affairs. They, therefore, deemed it necessary for the king "to take the whole business into his own hands."

1631.
Patent for Conn.
granted.
—————

In 1631, Lords Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and others, had obtained of the earl of Warwick, who held his right from the Grand Council of Plymouth, a patent of that part of New England, which extends "from Narragansett river, 120 miles on a straight line, near the shore, towards the southwest, as the coast lies toward Virginia, and within that breadth, from the Atlantic ocean to the South sea." This is the original patent for Connecticut. In 1635, John Winthrop, son of Gov. Winthrop, arrived with a commission from the patentees, to erect a fort at the mouth of Connecticut river. A few days after, a Dutch vessel, which was sent from the New Netherlands, appeared off the harbour to take possession of its entrance. The English having, by this time, mounted two pieces of cannon, prevented the landing of the Dutch, and proceeded to erect the fort, which they called Fort Saybrook.

1635.
Fort Saybrook
erected.
—————

Windsor and
Wethersfield
settled.
—————

In 1635, a number of adventurers from Watertown, in Massachusetts, repaired to the Connecticut, and began the settlement of Wethersfield, at a place, called by the natives, Pyquag. At the same time, a party from Dorchester began a plantation on the river, at Windsor, where the Plymouth trading house had been erected. A controversy arose, in consequence of this, between the people of Plymouth and Dorchester, which was amicably settled; the Dorchester colony purchasing the lands, and proceeding with the settlement.

In 1636, Hartford was first settled. The settlements in Massachusetts had now become so numerous, that it was judged expedient for a part of the inhabitants to seek a new residence. Induced by the representations of the fertility of the lands, on Connecticut river, the congregation at Newtown, Mass. (afterwards Cambridge,) with the excellent Mr. Hooker, their pastor, obtained permission of the general court

1636.
Hartford settled.
—————

to remove thither. In June they took their departure, and after a journey of twelve days, through a dreary and trackless wilderness, arrived on the banks of the Connecticut river. Here, they purchased of the natives, a tract of land, called Sukeag, but to which they gave the name of Hartford, where they succeeded in effecting a settlement. The settlements at Hart-

First govern-
ment of Conn.
—————

ford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, were at first governed by persons, denominated magistrates, acting under a commission from the legislature of Massachusetts, and being, on important occasions assisted by committees from the several towns.

The king, after receiving the patent of the Grand Council of Plymouth, the same year, granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, one of the original patentees, the lands lying between the rivers Sagadahock and Piscataqua.

1635.
Grant made to
Gorges.

In 1636, the Rev. Roger Williams commenced the settlement of the present state of Rhode Island. He had been banished from the colony of Massachusetts, in consequence of the liberality of his religious opinions. A number of his society accompanied him in his exile. Directing their march towards the south, they purchased from the natives a tract of land, where they fixed their permanent habitation. To this place, Wil-

1636.
First settlement
of Rhode Island.

liams, piously ascribing their good fortune to the superintending care of God, gave the name of Providence. To the first settlers of Rhode Island, is due the praise of having been the first of the colonists who understood and practised the principles of religious toleration.

In 1637, a public school was founded at Newtown, (Mass.) Cambridge, in England, being the place where many of the first settlers had received their education, the name of Newtown, was the next year, changed by the legislature, to that of Cambridge; and the school, established there in honour of its earliest benefactor, received the appellation of Harvard College.

1638.
Harvard College
established.

This year occurred in the colonies a remarkable example, of what the love of power and distinction may effect, with a pious, but credulous and superstitious people, when, operating in its worst form, it impiously assumes to act from direct communication with Heaven, and un-

1637.
Theological disturbance excited
by Mrs. Hutchinson.

der the immediate dictation of supernatural power. Mrs. Ann Hutchinson, an intriguing and ambitious woman, the wife of a respectable gentleman of Boston, had the address, by the propagation of certain opinions, to raise herself, for a time, to great consequence, and set the whole of the New England colonies in a religious ferment; arraying against each other, their most learned statesmen, and most pious divines. Her peculiar opinions were, that the elect, to whom her followers, of course, belonged, were under a covenant of grace, of which they were assured, by certain internal revelations; purity of life, in obedience to the divine commands, being, according to her creed, by no means necessary, as an evidence of acceptance with God. Those who denied this pernicious dogma, she inveighed against, as relying on a covenant of works; and she made no scruple of publicly denouncing as such, most of the ministers and magistrates of the colony. Among her followers were ranked, Mr. Cotton and Mr. Wheelwright, two distinguished divines, and the hypocritical Vane, then governor of Massachusetts, but who was afterwards, in consequence of adherence to her opinions, banished from the colony.

So violent were the animosities kindled by this woman's inflammatory discourses, that it became necessary to call, for the first time, a general synod. The venerable Hooker, recrossing the desert, from Hartford, was one of its moderators; and the pious Davenport, afterwards leader of the colony, at New Haven, arrived from England, just in time to assist in its deliberations. The synod, proceeding with fasting and prayer, at length condemned the doctrines of Mrs. Hutchinson and her followers; and enumerated eighty-two of her opinions as false and heretical. As she continued, however, to propagate them, with increased zeal, the church, in Boston, pronounced sentence of excommunication against her. She removed with her husband, first to Rhode Island, and afterwards, being then a widow, to the Dutch settlements, west of New Haven, where, with her family, she was massacred by the Indians. These theological disputes, however unfortunate they might seem, contributed, under the direction of Providence, by scattering the settlers, to the speedy population of America, and the more rapid advancement of civilization, over the wilderness of the new world.



SECTION III.

1637.

War with the Pequods, which ends in their extinction as a nation.

The same year, 1637, is distinguished in the history of New England, by a war with the Pequods. This nation, alarmed by the rapid progress of the whites, proposed to the Narragansetts, to whom they had long been hostile, that they should unite against their common enemy. The Narragansetts, instead of acceding to their proposal, communicated it to the colonists, and united with them against the Pequods. Exasperated at this conduct, the Pequods, immediately began to devise plans for destroying the English. They plundered and burned remote villages, and surprised and scalped the unprotected. The colonists were obliged to go armed to their daily labours, and to public worship.

The different colonies had agreed to unite against them, each furnishing a quota of troops, in proportion to their number. Those from Connecticut soon assembled, under Capt. Mason; sailed from Saybrook to Narragansett bay, and marched through the friendly country of the Narragansetts, many of whom joined them, on their route to fort Mystic, where the enemy were posted. They approached unperceived, and after a terrible assault, set fire to the fort, and surrounding it, the

women and children perished in the flames; and the warriors, in attempting to escape, met a fate not less cruel, from the hands of the Narragansetts.

After the junction of the troops from Massachusetts, the English, resolving to pursue their victory, hunted the Indians from one retreat to another. Subsequent encounters were not less fatal to them, than the action at fort Mystic. The great Pequod sachem, Sassacus, and his warriors, were so panic struck with the loss of Mystic, that, burning their wigwams and royal fortress, they fled towards Hudson river. They were pursued as far as a great swamp, in the present town of Fairfield, where another action ensued, in which the natives were entirely vanquished. In less than three months, the race of Pequods was extirpated. A few took refuge among the neighbouring tribes, but they lost their name as a distinct nation.

The vigorous efforts of the colonists, in this decisive campaign, filled all the surrounding tribes of Indians, with such a high opinion of their valour, as secured a long tranquillity to all their settlements; while, at the same time, the violence of the administration in England, continued to increase their population and strength, by forcing many to seek, in the new world, an exemption from oppression. The number of these emigrants, again attracted the attention of the English government, and a proclamation was issued, prohibiting the departure of several ships, which were ready to sail for New England. Fatally, for the king, this prohibition operated, in one instance, with full effect. Oliver Cromwell, and some others, to enjoy that civil and religious liberty, which was denied them in England, had formed a plan of passing over to New England, but were prevented, by this proclamation of the king. Charles little suspected, that he was thus forcibly detaining the men, destined to overturn his throne, and bring him to the scaffold.

Violent proceeding of the English gov't. under Charles I., &c.

The same year, an order was sent to Massachusetts, requiring the surrender of her charter. This was refused by the general court of the colony, and a petition presented, requesting a continuance of the privileges, which it granted them. The increasing disputes, between the king and parliament, probably, prevented their further attention to this subject, and thus the charter was saved.

The same year with the expedition against the Pequods, commenced the settlement of the colony of New Haven. The Rev. John Davenport, Theophilus Eaton, and others, arriving at Boston, and not finding sufficient accommodation in Massachusetts, Mr. Eaton, with a part of the company, explored the coast to the southwest, and fixed upon a place for settlement called Quininpiack, where they remained during

1637.

First settlement of N. Haven, by Davenport, Eaton, and others.

the winter. The following spring, they were joined by Mr. Davenport, with the remainder of the company. Soon after their arrival, a day was set apart for religious exercises, after which, the free planters assembled in a large barn, and subscribed what they termed, a plantation covenant, solemnly binding themselves, "until otherwise ordered, to be governed in all things of civil, as well as religious concerns, by the rules which the Scriptures held forth to them." Under this covenant,

1639. they continued until the next year, when they formed
 Its government. themselves into a body politic, and established a form of government. The governor and magistrates, were to be elected by such of their number, as were church members, and were to hold, annually, a general court, to regulate the affairs of the colony. Theophilus Eaton was chosen their first governor. To the place where they settled, which they held by purchase from the natives, they gave the name of New Haven, and it became the capital of the colony of the same name.

1638. Among those who were banished from Massachusetts, in consequence of Mrs. Hutchinson's opinions, was William Coddington, a gentleman of education, great virtue, and natural dignity of character. He had been for several years, a magistrate of the Massachusetts government.
 Mr. Coddington commences the settlement of the island of Rhode Island. In 1638, Mr. Coddington, with a few others, removed to Narragansett bay, and commenced the settlement of the island of Rhode Island. These planters immediately united in a civil compact, and created Mr. Coddington chief magistrate, and delegated to him the necessary powers of government. By the friendly assistance of Mr. Williams, Mr. Coddington purchased the island of the Indians, and in consequence of its pleasantness and fertility, in a few years, it became a flourishing settlement: and from the same cause, being compared to the beautiful island of Rhodes, its Indian appellation of Aquetneck, was exchanged for that of Rhode Island.

The same year, Mr. Wheelwright, who was a relative of Mrs. Hutchinson, having adopted her sentiments, was obliged to leave the colony of Massachusetts. He took a course, opposite to the other exiles, and advancing towards the north, founded the town of Exeter, on a small river, flowing into the Piscataqua, within the limits of the lands which he purchased of the natives, in 1629. The colony of Massachusetts Bay, claimed jurisdiction over this settlement, as occupying lands situated within the limits of their grant. Gorges and Mason, asserted the rights conveyed to them as proprietors, by their charter. In several districts, the planters, without regarding the pretensions of either party, governed themselves by maxims and laws, copied from the adjacent colonies.

In 1639, the crown granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, a charter, confirming the grant previously made to him, of the lands between the rivers Sagadahock and Piscataqua, now called the Province of Maine, and investing him with powers of government. That which he instituted, proved impolitic, and the colony did not flourish.

1639.
Charter granted to Gorges.

Mr. George Fenwick, with his family, came from England, as agent for the patentees of Connecticut, and laid the foundation of the town of Saybrook.

Settlement of Saybrook.

The Plymouth colony, which had continued slowly to increase, in 1639, for the first time, called a house of representatives; all the freemen having, previous to this period, assembled to decide upon the affairs of the colony.

First representatives, called in the Plymouth colony.

A similar change, also took place in the government of Maryland. The burgesses, elected by the people, assembled, with persons appointed by the proprietor, and constituted a "house of assembly."

1639.
House of assembly established in Maryland.

The Virginians, until this time, had continued under the regulations of the king, whose arbitrary measures were particularly felt, during the administration of Sir John Harvey, whom, in 1636, he appointed governor. The colonists rose in opposition to his authority, made him prisoner, and sent him to England. Charles, highly offended at their conduct, restored him to his office, with more ample powers than before. Great dissatisfaction continued to prevail, till the king, by an extraordinary deviation from his usual conduct, instructed Sir William Berkley, whom he made governor, in 1639, to allow the representatives of the people, again to sit, in conjunction with the royal governor, and council, in deciding upon the business of the colony. Charles thus suddenly altered his conduct towards the colonies, from his rising fears, with respect to his own personal security. Already obnoxious to his people, he feared that his unpopularity with the parliament, which was about to convene, would be increased by complaints from the colonists, unless he redressed their grievances.

Oppressive government of Va.

1639.
Charles restores the people to a share in the government.

This year, the emigrants at Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, finding themselves without the limits of the patent of Massachusetts, adopted a constitution for the government of their colony, to which they gave the name of Connecticut, the Indian appellation of the beautiful river on whose banks they were located.

The same year, the first printing office introduced into America, was established at Cambridge.

In 1640, the New Haven colony made settlements on the Delaware, which in 1642, were broken up by the Dutch.

1640.
Settlements on the Delaware.

1641.
N. Hampshire
incorporated
with Mass.

In 1641, the little independent settlements in New Hampshire, were, for greater security, incorporated with Massachusetts.

1642.
Indian war in
Maryland.

In 1642, Clayborne, the evil genius of Maryland, enraged at the increasing power of the Marylanders, and fearful of his own destruction, intrigued with the savages, and occasioned the colonists an Indian war, which lasted several years, but was at length ended by the submission of the natives. Clayborne fled from justice, and his estate was confiscated.

1643.
The commence-
ment of the con-
federacy, by the
union of the four
colonies of N. E.

In New England, four distinct colonies were now settled, and their governments formed. Besides these, the plantation at Saybrook remained independent of the government of these colonies, under the direction of Mr. Fenwick. These four colonies, Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, finding, from their dispersed situation, and their individual weakness, that they were peculiarly exposed to the assaults of their enemies, and in danger of mutual collisions, now entertained thoughts of a *general confederation*, for their common protection, and mutual benefit. This important object having been some years in agitation, in May, 1643, commissioners from the respective colonies, completed and signed the articles of confederation.* This confederacy, they styled "*The United Colonies of New England.*" Each colony appointed two commissioners, who met annually, in one of the four colonies, by rotation, where all objects of common interest were considered and determined. Rhode Island, petitioning to be admitted into this confederacy, was absolutely refused, unless, by acknowledging the jurisdiction of Plymouth, it should cease to be a separate colony; a condition to which it would not submit, and therefore remained independent. The confederacy, which continued more than forty years, was of the greatest advantage to the colonies, as it maintained internal peace, and rendered them formidable to the Indian tribes, to their neighbours, the Dutch, and, in a degree, to the French in Canada. This was taking the first step, in the formation of the grand confederacy of the United States, or Republic of America.

Geographical notices of the country at the third epocha, or in 1643, the date of the third Map, &c.

The settlements in New England rapidly extended, and the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, were formed. Settlements were also commenced in Rhode Island, New

* See Appendix E.

Hampshire, and Maine. The colony of Massachusetts was divided into four counties, Essex, Middlesex, Suffolk, and Norfolk. Fifty towns were now settled in New England. Among the principal of these were Plymouth, Boston, Cambridge, and Salem, in Massachusetts; Hartford, Saybrook, and New Haven, in Connecticut; Providence, in Rhode Island; and Portsmouth and Dover, in New Hampshire. Harvard University was founded, and a printing press established in Cambridge.

The inhabitants already turned their attention to manufactures, some mills were erected, and in Rowley, in Massachusetts, an attempt was made at spinning cotton and manufacturing cloth, the first attempt of the kind in North America.

Ships, of from one to four hundred tons, had been built, and five of them were already at sea. Commerce was carried on with England and the West India islands. Furs, which were purchased from the natives, were exported.

The products of the country were Indian corn, rye, hemp, and flax.

The number of colonists who had arrived in New England, since the landing of the first settlers, was estimated at 21,000, some of these, however, had returned to England, so that the exact population, at this time, is not known.

A small settlement had been made in Maryland, and another in Delaware. The Dutch had extended their settlements around New-York, and had erected a fort at Albany. It is not probable, from the best accounts, that the whole population of the New Netherlands exceeded one thousand. The settlements in Virginia had not increased during this period.

*Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period extending from
1620 to 1643.*

	Year in which they died.
SAMUEL ARGAL, a celebrated navigator, and governor of Virginia.	Uncertain.
FRANCIS WYATT, governor of Virginia.	Uncertain.
JOHN CARVER, first governor of Plymouth colony.	1621.
GEORGE YEARDLY, governor of Virginia.	1626.
JOHN SMITH, a man of great talents and enterprise, and founder of the colony of Virginia.	1631.
JOHN HARVARD, founder of Harvard College.	1638.

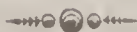
PART IV.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The commencement of } **THIRD EPOCHIA, 1643,** { the confederacy, &c.

TO THE

Massachusetts receives } **FOURTH EPOCHIA, 1692.** { territories; eleven years
a new charter, including } after Penn receives the
Maine and other large } grant of Pennsylvania.



SECTION I.

IN 1643 Roger Williams was sent to England as agent for the Rhode Island and Providence plantations, to obtain a charter of civil government. He found the affairs of the colonies in the hands of the

1644.
Rhode Island obtains a charter.

earl of Warwick, and seventeen commissioners, who had been appointed by parliament, with much the same powers, as had been given to those appointed by the king, in 1634. By the assistance of Mr. Vane, the

former governor of Massachusetts, now one of the commissioners, he obtained from them a free charter of incorporation, dated March, 1644. The form of government, provided by this incorporation, was essentially similar to that established in the adjacent colonies. Mr. Williams lived to a great age, and was chosen governor several times.

1644.
Conn. purchases Saybrook.

In 1644, Mr. Fenwick, as agent of the patentees, assigned to the general court of Connecticut, for seven thousand dollars, the fort at Saybrook, and all the right conferred by the patent, from the Plymouth company in England. This settlement then became part of that colony.

1645.
Insurrection in Maryland.

When the civil war between the king and parliament began, Clayborne espoused the cause of the latter; and in 1645 he returned to Maryland, where he had sufficient influence to raise an insurrection. and compel Gov. Calvert to fly to

Virginia for safety, while he and his associates usurped the government. The rebellion was, however, quelled the next year, and quiet restored.

In 1646, an obstinate battle was fought between the Dutch and Indians, in that part of Horseneck, in the present town of Greenwich, Conn., called Strickland's plains. Great numbers were killed on both sides, but the Dutch were eventually victorious.

1646.

Battle between the Dutch and Indians.

The first settlements in Carolina, were begun about this time, by planters from Virginia, and emigrants from other places, who, fleeing from religious intolerance, commenced a settlement on Chowan river, north of Albemarle sound. Among them were many Quakers. This settlement, falling within the Carolina grant, the proprietors claimed jurisdiction over it, and authorized Berkley, governor of Virginia, to take it under his protection and government.

1650.

First settlement in Carolina.

In 1649, the tract of country between the Rappahannock and Potomac, which had been included in the original patent, to Virginia, was regranted to Lords Berkley, Culpepper, and others.

1649.

Part of Virginia regranted.

In 1650, the Dutch governor, at New Netherlands, met commissioners from the New England colonies, at New Haven, to settle mutual complaints, and interfering claims to the country. An adjustment was made, and a line of partition between their respective territories was fixed. The Dutch relinquished all claims to Connecticut, excepting such lands as they already occupied. Long Island was divided between them. While the commissioners were in session, two French gentlemen were sent as agents from Canada, to obtain aid against the Six Nations, which, however, the colonists declined giving.

1650.

Line of partition between the Dutch and Conn.

After the settlement of the Dutch claims, the people of New Haven attempted again to establish themselves on the Delaware, but were prevented by the Dutch.

In 1651, the Dutch built a fort at Newcastle. John Printz, then governor of the Swedish settlements, on the Delaware, considering it within the Swedish dominions, formally protested against it. The succeeding Swedish governor made the fort a visit, under pretence of friendship to the commander, when he, with a number of his subjects, treacherously took possession of it, while enjoying its hospitality.

1651.

Swedish governor takes the Dutch fort on the Delaware.

The conflict between the king and parliament, which shook the government of England, had its various influence on her colonies, in America, according to their religious and political sentiments. Parliament, having obtained the

Contest in England affects the colonies.

supremacy, the New England colonies, who, during the contest, had espoused its cause, were favoured, in return; while the southern colonies were viewed with suspicion. Commissioners were appointed, in

1651.
Civil war in
Maryland.

1651, for the purpose of "reducing and governing the colonies, within the bay of Chesapeake." This gave

rise to a civil war between the Catholics, who adhered to the proprietor; and the protestants, who espoused the cause of parliament. Calvert, the governor and proprietor, was at first allowed to retain his station, on consenting to acknowledge the authority of parliament; but he was unable to preserve peace. He, and the party to whom he was attached, were obliged, in 1652, to sur-

Government
surrendered to
parliament.

render the government into the hands of parliament.

In an assembly, under the victorious party, it was declared that no Catholic should have the protection of the laws. Quakers and Episcopalians were also persecuted.

1651.
Va. submits to
parliament.

Parliament, irritated at the conduct of the Virginians, who, during the civil war in England, had been faithful to the royal cause, sent a fleet, in 1651, to reduce them

to submission. Berkley, the governor, imprudently prepared to oppose this force, but found himself obliged to submit. He, however, remained in the country beloved and respected.

N. E. favoured
by parliament.

The New England colonies, whose religious and political sentiments coincided with those of the popular leaders in parliament, continued to be distinguished by peculiar privileges. They were exempted from all taxes, and no restrictions were laid upon their commerce. For these favours, the colonists applauded the measures of parliament, prayed for the success of its arms, and framed regulations to prevent any exertions in favour of the king. Thus, the parties which convulsed Great Britain, and brought Charles to the scaffold, in 1649, did not expire with him; and when Cromwell usurped the supreme command, in 1653, the Puritans in America stood high in his estimation.

The year 1653 was one of peculiar alarm and expense to the United Colonies of New England. The Dutch at New Netherlands, who had been hostile to them, made no satisfaction for former injuries, and

1653.
Difficulties with
the Dutch.

though they did not commit open hostilities, yet there were reasons to suppose that they endeavoured to instigate the Narragansett Indians to destroy the New England colonies. The commissioners of the colonies met, and despatched agents to the Dutch governor, to expostulate with him on these unfriendly measures; but the agents returning unsatisfied, the commissioners met again, and determined upon a war with the Narragansetts. Massachusetts alleged that the war was unjust, and refused to raise her quota of troops. The other colonies, not only felt unable

to prosecute the contest, without the aid of Massachusetts, but considered that she had violated the articles of confederation, by withholding it. Under the influence of these feelings, Connecticut and New Haven sent an account of their wants and grievances to Cromwell and the parliament. Troops were furnished from England, and a request sent, that Massachusetts would afford all necessary assistance. This was so far acceded to that five hundred men were allowed to be raised in the colony. The following year, however, before the arrival of the troops sent by parliament, peace was restored between England and Holland, and, with it, harmony between the United Colonies and with the Dutch at New Netherlands.

Dispute between
the United Colo-
nies.

Peace restored.

After the Swedes had treacherously taken possession of the Dutch fort, they occupied the country on both sides of the Delaware, until 1655, when Stuyvesant, having obtained assistance from Holland, conquered all their posts, and transported most of the Swedes to Europe.

1655.

Dutch conquer
the Swedes.

In 1656, occurred an insurrection in Maryland, headed by Josias Fendal, a man of restless intrigue, who caused much disturbance to the province. Two years after, he was, by the commission of parliament, appointed governor, but his intriguing disposition still manifested itself, and prevented the restoration of public quiet.

1656.

Fendal's insur-
rection in Mary-
land.

About this time several Quakers arrived at Massachusetts, who being peculiarly offensive to the inhabitants, were much persecuted. A law was passed, prohibiting Quakers from entering the colony; they were deprived of their rights as freemen; they were fined and imprisoned, and some who returned to the colony, after having been banished, were punished with death. These unjust and impolitic prohibitions were afterwards repealed.*

Quakers perse-
cuted in Mass.

* " While the Quakers were suffering the rigid penalties of the law, the general court of Massachusetts passed the Sumptuary Law. By this law, ' no person, whose visible estate did not exceed the sum of two hundred pounds, should wear any gold or silver lace, or gold or silver buttons, or any fine lace above two shillings per yard, or silk hoods or scarves, under the penalty of ten shillings for every offence.' The law authorized and required the selectmen of each town, ' to take notice of the apparel of any of the inhabitants, and to assess such persons as they shall judge to exceed their rank and abilities, in the costliness or fashion of their apparel, in any respect, especially in wearing ribbons and great boots, at two hundred pounds estates, according to the proportion which such men used to pay, to whom such apparel is suitable and allowed.' An exception was made in favour of public officers and their families, and of those, whose educations and employments have been above the ordinary degrees, or whose estates have been considerable, though now decayed."

SECTION II.

1660.

Charles II. re-
stored.

IN 1658 Cromwell died; and, after an interval of two years, Charles II. was restored to his throne, from which he had been excluded. This was an event by no means agreeable to the settlers in New England. They had been fostered under the care of Cromwell and the parliament, and regarded the restoration of monarchy in England, as a blight upon their republican institutions and religious liberties.

The inhabitants of Virginia, when they submitted to the authority of parliament, in 1651, were promised a continuance of their former privileges. The commissioners of parliament appointed a governor, in 1652, but from that period until the restoration, the people, receiving no further instructions from them, were left to govern themselves.

Virginia, during
the common-
wealth, governs
herself.

The house of burgesses assembled, and declared that, till they should receive orders from England, the supreme power of Virginia rested with them. In 1658, they called Berkley from his retirement, and again made him

governor of the colony. The Virginians, however, sincerely rejoiced in the restoration of Charles II, and long boasted that, as they were the

At the restora-
tion, submits to
the crown.

last of the king's subjects who renounced their allegiance, so they were the first to return to their duty. Berkley was soon after appointed governor by the king.

1662.

Md. restored to
its proprietor.

In 1662, the government of Maryland was restored to the proprietor.

Regicide judges,
Goffe and Whal-
ley.

Previous to the restoration of Charles II., but in the same year, 1660, Goffe and Whalley, two of the commissioners appointed for the trial of the king, and who had signed the warrant for his execution, arrived at Boston, where they were courteously received by Gov. Endicot and the principal citizens, and resided at Cambridge, in a situation, retired, but not secreted. In 1661, the intelligence reached them, that several of the regicides had been condemned and executed in England; and that they were not included in the act of pardon. They then removed to New Haven, and were, for a time, secreted by the principal inhabitants. Meanwhile, royal mandates were issued for the apprehension of the regicides; but it has been said, that the officers sent on the service, were not very nice in their scrutiny. At length, two English merchants were commissioned to go through the colonies, as far as Manhattan, in search of them; when the harassed judges secreted themselves in various places, and at last, in a singular natural cave, on West Rock, near New Haven, where they continued some time, and were provided with subsist.

ence by their friends. In 1664, they removed to Hadley, in Massachusetts, where they remained concealed for years, in the house of the Rev. Mr. Russell. Gen. Goffe had married a daughter of Gen. Whalley, and was equally attached to his father-in-law, from principle and from their family connexion. During his residence here, it is said, he corresponded with his wife, under the signature of Walter Goldsmith.

When the Indians attacked Hadley, in 1675, and threw the inhabitants, who were assembled for worship, into the utmost confusion, Gen. Goffe, entirely unknown by them, white with age and confinement, of a commanding aspect, and clothed in an unusual dress, suddenly presented himself among them, and encouraging them by his exhortations, placed himself at their head, and led them, by his military skill, to immediate victory. The battle had scarcely terminated, when he disappeared; and the people, alike ignorant of the place from whence he came, and to which he retired, regarded him as an angel sent for their deliverance. After the death of Whalley, which it is supposed happened at Hadley, about the year 1679, Goffe travelled southward, and no certain information of him has been obtained.*

In 1661, a settlement was made in Carolina, near the mouth of Clarendon, on Cape Fear river, by adventurers from Massachusetts. They abandoned it in 1663, and in 1665, their place was supplied by emigrants from Barbadoes. A separate government was here established, and Sir John Yeamans invested with the authority of governor.

1661.
Settlement made
in Carolina.

In 1662, a mint was established at Boston. The same year, the Connecticut colony applied to Charles II. for a charter of incorporation; which was granted, confirming, in every particular, the constitution which the people had adopted, and conferring on them all the privileges of English subjects. It included New Haven, but the union being at first, utterly disagreeable to that colony, it was not effected till 1665. In 1663, Rhode Island obtained a similar charter.

1662.
Charles II.
grants a charter
to Conn.: 1663,
to R. Island.

In 1663, the king granted to Lord Clarendon, and others, the same territory, lying between 30° and 36° of north latitude, which had been before granted to Sir Robert Heath; who, by not having made settlements, had forfeited the conditions of his patent. Clarendon received the same powers of government, over those who should settle in the country, as had been given to Lord Baltimore, the proprietor of Mary-

1663.
Carolina granted
to Lord Clarendon,
which interferes with
Spanish claims.

* The remains of Whalley were discovered in 1794, by a Mr. Gaylord, who was preparing to build, on the spot where Mr. Russell's house stood. The body was buried in a sort of tomb, formed with mason work, and covered with flags of hewn stone, just without the cellar wall of Mr. Russell's house. How affecting must have been the scene, when, probably, the venerable Russel, his wife, and the bereaved Goffe, descended, at dead of night, to lay the body of their friend, in this subterranean grave!

land. Two years after, a second charter was granted, extending the limits of the first, to the twenty-ninth and thirty-first and a half degrees, and from the sea coast to the Pacific ocean. The Spaniards claimed a large portion of this country, which they called Florida; but, by a treaty between Great Britain and Spain, in 1667, they were supposed to have relinquished this claim. The settlers at Albemarle sound, though within the limits of this patent, were allowed to retain their lands.

1664. Charles, aware of the evil of having a Dutch colony in the heart of his American dominions, denied their right to that portion of the country, which they claimed, and determined to dispossess them. He, therefore, in 1664, made a grant of the whole country, extending from Delaware bay to Nova Scotia, to his brother, then duke of York and Albany; the same, who, under the title of James II. succeeded, at his death, to the crown of England. Although at peace with Holland, Charles determined to send troops, to put him in possession of the country, and an expedition was soon fitted out, commanded by Colonel Richard Nichols. He arrived at Boston, and soon after proceeded to Manhattan, and demanded a surrender of the fort.

N. Neth. submit to his authority. Gov. Stuyvesant would willingly have opposed this demand; but the people, who, under the government of the Dutch West India Company, had suffered many grievances, and were deprived of all share in the management of the affairs of the colony, were desirous to surrender the government into the hands of Col. Nichols, who promised to secure to the governor and inhabitants, their liberty and estates, with all the privileges of English subjects. New Amsterdam, in honour of the duke, was called New-York. Part of the armament immediately sailed up the river, under the command of Sir George Carteret, to fort Orange, which soon surrendered, and was named Albany. Sir Robert Carr proceeded with another division of the fleet, to the Delaware, to reduce the Dutch and Swedes on that bay and river. They were soon compelled to surrender to the English, and thus the whole of New Netherlands came under the government of New-York, and was called by the same name.

1664. Colonel Nichols, George Cartwright, Samuel Maverick, and Sir Robert Carr, had been appointed commissioners from his majesty, not only in the reduction of the Dutch plantations, and the government and settlement of them, but for visiting the New England colonies, hearing and determining all matters of complaint, and for establishing the peace and security of the country. Nothing important, however, appears to have resulted from this measure; and although the colonists considered it an invasion of their chartered rights, yet, no direct opposition was made

to the proceedings of the commissioners, excepting in Massachusetts, whose firmness in resisting every exercise of their power, deeply offended them; and Carr and Cartwright left the country in high displeasure. Cartwright was taken prisoner by the Dutch, on his passage home, and Carr died the next day after his arrival, or immediate measures would probably have been taken against the colony.

After the surrender of the Dutch governor, Nichols entered upon the administration of the government of New-York, which he conducted with great prudence, integrity, and moderation. The people, however, continued without the privilege of calling an assembly, or having any voice in the government of the colony; all authority being vested in the royal governor and council. Nichols returned to England, and was succeeded by Lovelace, 1667.

Nichols governs New-York.

During the same year, but previous to the surrender of the Dutch, the duke of York made a grant of that part of his patent, lying between the Hudson and Delaware, to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret. This tract was called New-Jersey, in compliment to Sir George, who had been governor of the isle of Jersey. In 1664, before the grant to Berkley and Carteret was known, three persons from Long Island, purchased of the natives a tract of the country, which was called Elizabethtown, where a settlement was commenced. Other towns were soon settled by emigrants from the colonies, and from Europe. These opposite claims caused much discord between the proprietors and inhabitants. In 1665, Berkley and Carteret formed a constitution for the colony, and appointed Philip Carteret governor. He resided at Elizabethtown and made it the seat of government.

1664.

New-Jersey granted to Berkley and Carteret.

In 1669, the settlement of Port Royal, in Carolina, was commenced. William Sayle, was the first governor appointed by the proprietors. He first landed in Carolina, at or near Beaufort, in 1670, and the next year, established on the banks of Ashley river, the foundation of Old Charleston. He died in 1671, when his colony was annexed to that around Cape Fear, under Gov. Yeamans. From this time, there were but two governments in Carolina—that around Albemarle sound, and the one just mentioned. They were both under the same proprietor, though in many respects, their interests were distinct. They received the appellations of North and South Carolina.

1669.

Third settlement in Carolina.

1671.

Charleston founded; unites with Cape Fear, and is called S. Carolina.

During the administration of governor Sayle, a constitution, prepared at the request of the proprietors, by the celebrated Mr. Locke, was attempted to be put in

Locke's constitution.

force. A great opposition was made to it; and in Albemarle, an insurrection was occasioned, by an attempt to enforce it.*

1672. In 1672, domestic disputes in New-Jersey became violent. The inhabitants of Elizabethtown, who had purchased the soil of the natives, previous to the proprietary government, refused to pay rent to the proprietors, and carried their opposition so far, as to expel Philip Carteret, the proprietary governor, and substitute James Carteret, his son, in his place. The father returned to England, and obtained from the proprietors, such conditions as quieted the colonists, and the proprietary government was restored.

1673. In 1673, England and Holland were again involved in war, and Holland sent over a small fleet to regain her American possessions. This force arrived at New-York, and demanded a surrender, which was made without resistance, and the Dutch took immediate possession of the fort and city, and soon after of the whole of New Netherlands.

1674. The next year, 1674, the war terminated, and a treaty was concluded between England and Holland. New-York was restored to the English; and the duke of York, to prevent controversy about his title to the territory, took out a new patent, and the same year appointed Sir Edmund Andross, governor

In 1675, Mason and Gorges revived their claims to New Hampshire. From the time that the settlements in New Hampshire had formally submitted to the government of Massachusetts, these claims had lain dormant. Upon a hearing of the parties, it was determined by the judges of England, that the towns on the Piscataqua, were not within the limits of Massachusetts.

1675. In 1675, Andross conducted an expedition against Connecticut. He claimed jurisdiction over that part of the colony, west of the river, by virtue of its having been included in the grant to the duke of York. This territory had, however, long before, been granted to the colony of Connecticut. Andross, with an armed force, arrived off Saybrook fort. The governor and council being apprised of his design, sent captain Bull to make defence. By his vigilance and firmness, he entirely defeated the designs of Andross; who, finding the colony determined not to submit to his government, abandoned the attempt, and returned to Long Island.†

* See Appendix F

† Sir Edmund Andross, although he appears in the history of the colonies, as the willing instrument of a despotic oppressor, was, however, a man of wit. History relates, that, though unsuccessful in his attempt on fort Saybrook, he could not but admire the commander, and

SECTION III

AT this period, 1675, occurred the most bloody and decisive of all the Indian wars, in which the New England colonists were engaged. This was commonly called King Philip's war, from the dauntless savage who was its instigator. His father, Massasoit, had been the friend of the whites, but his elder brother had died, in consequence of being imprisoned by them. He remembered that his ancestors had reigned sole lords of the forest. Now, their hunting grounds were abridged; and the deer, the bear, and other animals on which they depended for subsistence, were frightened away by the hum of civilization. The new race, whom their fathers received when a poor and feeble band, and probably regarded as objects of pity, and who could not have existed a day, but for their forbearance, were now gradually spreading themselves over the land, and assuming to be its sovereigns. Nothing seemed to remain to the native savage, but to be driven by degrees, from the occupations and possessions of his forefathers, or to arouse, make one mighty effort, and by the total extirpation of the whites, restore all things to their former state. This was the spirit which, emanating from Philip, whose residence was near Mount Hope, now Bristol, spread itself throughout the various Indian tribes. Even the Narragansetts were suspected, as secretly favouring the designs of Philip, and of harbouring his old men and women.

1675.

Philip's war. Its causes.

Dreadful beyond description was the condition of the colonists. The object of the Indians, was totally to exterminate them, and aimed equally at the lives of the armed and the defenceless. They were withheld by no laws of religion, and their customs of war, instead of restraining, led them to the most shocking barbarities. The previous state of peace and security, in the course of which, the whites had spread themselves over a large extent of country, and mingled their dwellings with those of the Indians, rendered their situation more perilous. The Indians thus became acquainted with their haunts and their habits; and they sought to make their attacks, when and where they would be least likely to meet a repulse. They ambushed the private path; they rushed with the dreadful war-whoop upon the worshipping assembly; and, during the silence of midnight, set fire to the lonely dwelling, and butchered its inhabitants. When the father of the family was to go

Dreadful consequences of Indian warfare.

learning that his name was Bull, declared, "that it was a pity his horns were not tipped with silver." Traditional examples of his wit, are also related.

forth in the morning, he knew he might meet his death-shot as he opened his door, from some foe concealed behind his fences, or in his barn : or he might go, and return to find his family murdered during his absence. When the mother lay down at night, with her infant cradled on her arm, she knew that, before morning, it might be plucked from her bosom, and its brains dashed out before her eyes. Such were at all times, the consequences of savage warfare ; but, at no time during the settlement of the country, were they so extensively felt, as during the year through which this war continued.

Philip had not proceeded farther, than to work upon the minds of the Indians, by secret machinations, when one Sausaman, an Indian friendly to the whites, gave them notice of his designs. He was soon after murdered. On investigation, the Plymouth court found that the murder was committed by three of Philips most intimate friends, and forthwith caused them to be executed. The Indian king now felt that private wrongs were added to public, and no longer delayed to make the great effort, upon which he was resolved, and in which he persevered, until he and his tribe met that extermination which he had projected for the English.

1675. On the 20th of June, 1675, Philip commenced hostilities upon Swanzey, one of the frontier towns of New Plymouth. The troops of that colony, marched immediately to the defence of the town. They charged so vigorously, that the Indians fled before them, and took refuge in a swamp. Receiving reinforcements from Boston, the troops of the colonists marched into the Indian towns, which, on their approach, were deserted. Even the seat of Philip bore evidence of the precipitation with which it had been left. The route of the savages was marked with the ruin of buildings which had been burned, and the scalps and heads of the English, which were fixed upon poles by the way side. The troops, finding they could not overtake the Indians, returned to Swanzey.

Comm'rs meet at Boston. They send troops to Stonington. The commissioners of the colonies met at Boston, in consequence of the war with Philip. They despatched troops to Stonington, to defend that part of the colony against the enemy. As the Narragansetts were suspected of being hostile, it was determined that the army which was stationed at Swanzey, should immediately march into their country, and treat with them sword in hand. On the 15th of July, **Treaty with the Narragansetts.** a treaty was concluded between the colonies and Narragansetts. Among other stipulations, it was determined that the commissioners should give forty coats to any of the Narragansetts who should bring Philip alive, and twenty for his head ; and that two coats should be given for every subject of Philip, delivered alive to the English.

On the 17th, the troops returned to Taunton, upon intelligence that Philip and his warriors were in a swamp at Pocasset, near Mount Hope. The Massachusetts and Plymouth forces formed a junction, and on the 18th attacked them. The Indians had chosen an advantageous situation. As the army entered the swamp, they retreated deeper and deeper into it, till the troops were led into such a hideous thicket, that it was impossible for them to keep their order. The action was continued till night, when the English retreated. Had they renewed their attack upon him the next day, they might have terminated the war, as Philip was so enclosed in the swamp, that he could not have escaped, except by fighting his way through the English army. But they injudiciously neglected this; and Philip, about six or eight days after, made his escape, and fled to the Nipmucks. Capt. Hutchinson, with a company of horse, was sent to treat with that tribe, but being drawn into an ambush, near Brookfield, he was mortally wounded, and sixteen of his company were killed. The enemy then rushed into the town, and burned all the dwelling houses but one, which was defended by the people. Deerfield and Hatfield were also attacked. The parties which were sent out by the officers, were surprised and killed. Intending to collect a magazine at Hadley, and garrison the town, Captain Lathrop, with a chosen corps of young men, was sent to transport a quantity of corn from Deerfield to that place. They were suddenly attacked by the Indians, at Bloody Brook; and, though they fought with great bravery, they were almost all cut off.

1675.

Philip attacked at Pocasset.

Philip escapes to the Nipmucks.

Brookfield, Deerfield, Hatfield, and Hadley, suffer.

In October, the Springfield Indians, who had previously been friendly, concerted a plan with the hostile tribes, to burn that town; but the plot was discovered in time to prevent its total destruction. While the flames of Springfield were raging, the Indians attacked Hatfield; but the town was garrisoned with a force sufficient to repel the assault of the enemy, and the fugitives fled to the Narragansetts. Others joined the Indians of Canada.

Springfield nearly destroyed.

In the autumn of this year, there was a general rising of the savages throughout N. England, and without a vigorous effort, the colonists apprehended total extinction. The Narragansetts, in direct violation of their treaty, not only received Philip's warriors, but even aided their attacks upon the English. It was determined, therefore, to send an army into their country, and to attack their head quarters, which were in the present town of South Kingston, Rhode Island.

A general rising of the savages.

On the 18th of December, the different bodies of troops formed a junction in the country of the Narragansetts, at Pettyquamscot, about fifteen miles from the enemy. The whole army was conducted by Gov. Win-

Dec. 18th.

The troops form a junction under Gov. Winslow.

slow of Plymouth. The Connecticut forces were commanded by Major Treat. On the 19th, at dawn of day, they began their march ; and, after passing a stormy night in the open air, they waded through the snow sixteen miles. About one o'clock, they arrived near the enemy's fortress, which was on a rising ground, in the midst of a swamp. This fort was encircled by palisadoes and trees, very firmly compacted together. A single log, which lay over a collection of water, was the only entrance, and this pass was securely guarded. In this fort, it was supposed, were collected about 4000 Indians. After exchanging one shot, the enemy fled into the fort. The English pursued, but were obliged to retire with loss. At this moment, was discovered, on the opposite side of the fort, a place destitute of palisadoes, through which a party

They attack the
Indians, and en-
tirely defeat
them.

of the assailants sprang into the fort, fell upon the rear of the Indians, and achieved a complete victory. The battle lasted three hours. One thousand Indian warriors were killed ; three hundred warriors, and as many women and children, were made prisoners. About six hundred of their wigwams were burned ; and many of the Indians perished in the flames. From this defeat the Indians never entirely recovered. They, however, carried on a predatory war, and, aided by their brethren in Canada, desolated many of the frontier towns.

The English pursued the war with energy. In the spring of 1676, the colonial troops were almost universally victorious. Jealousies arose among the different tribes of savages, and while great numbers were slain, many deserted the common cause.

1676. Philip had attempted to arouse the Mohawks against the English, and had, for this purpose, killed a number of the tribe, and attributed their death to the English. His perfidy was detected, and he fled to Mount Hope. Here he was pursued by Capt. Church, who had particularly distinguished himself in this contest. In the midst of these reverses, Philip remained firm and unshaken. His chief men, as also his wife and family, were killed or taken prisoners ; and he is said to have wept at these successive misfortunes, with a bitterness that evinced the possession of the finest feelings of human nature. So averse was he to submis-

Philip is killed.

sion, that he even shot one of his men who proposed it. After being driven from swamp to swamp, he was at last shot, near Mount Hope, by the brother of the Indian whom he had killed. Of the scattering parties which remained, many were captured, others surrendered, or fled to the French, and to the Indians of distant tribes.

SECTION IV.

The original proprietors of New-Jersey, Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, had held the province as joint property; but Berkley, becoming weary with the care of an estate, which yielded him neither honour nor profit, sold his share to Edward Billinge. That gentleman, becoming involved in debt, found it necessary to assign over his property for the benefit of his creditors and, as one of the assignees of Billinge, William Penn is first introduced into the American History. New-Jersey was now jointly held by Sir George Carteret, and the assignees or trustees of Billinge; but perceiving the inconvenience of holding joint property, they agreed to separate the country into East and West Jersey; Carteret receiving the sole proprietorship of East Jersey, and Penn and his associates, acting for the creditors of Billinge, that of West Jersey. West Jersey was next divided into one hundred shares, which were separately sold, and thus commenced a confusion of property, which was the source of much controversy, in the province.

Lord Berkley
sells his right
in New-Jersey.

1676.

It is divided into
East and West
Jersey.

The history of the Anglo-American colonies presents, in general, a series of efforts, on the part of the parent country, to extend an arbitrary and unjust power over her foreign subjects; and on theirs, the calm, determined resistance of men—wise to understand, and spirited to maintain their rights. Little place is found for what constitutes so great a part of the history of other countries, the ambition of one, causing the ruin of many. A solitary exception to this remark occurs in the history of the rebellion in Virginia, excited by Nathaniel Bacon. This young demagogue was bred a lawyer in England, and arrived in Virginia at a time when the inhabitants were harassed by a protracted war with the Susquehannah Indians, and their minds irritated by the oppressions of the British government, in laying heavy restraints upon their commerce. These restrictions, which commenced with the celebrated Navigation Act, passed by the house of commons in 1651, had been increased by later statutes,* and were now enforced with great rigour. Portions of their territory had also been granted to favourite courtiers, contrary to the original charters; thereby subjecting the colonists to pay, as the only means of relief, extravagant taxes for the purpose of extinguishing these claims.

1676.

Bacon instigates
a rebellion in Va.

Causes of irrita-
tion; Naviga-
tion Act, &c.

* See Appendix G.

Bacon who, to a commanding person, added a fascinating eloquence, at first took the tone of sympathy for the sufferings of the people, until he won their affection and confidence; when, assuming a bolder note, he insinuated that there were means of relief, to procure which the government of the colony was inadequate; particularly charging its officers with a needless protraction of the Indian war. The infatuated people fell into the snare, elected Bacon their general, with unlimited powers, and sent to Jamestown, requiring of the governor and council to grant him a commission. They refusing, Bacon, at the head of six hundred armed followers, marched to James-

town, and obtained his commission, by operating on their fears. He then departed to pursue the war against the Indians. No sooner had he left Jamestown, than

Gov. Berkley issued a proclamation, declaring him a rebel, and commanding his followers to deliver him up, and return to their homes. Bacon, only irritated by this act of weakness and folly,

returned, with his followers, to Jamestown; and Gov. Berkley, compelled to leave it, fled across the bay to Accomack, where he collected a considerable force.

All the horrors of a civil war, for a time, desolated Virginia. Jamestown was burned by the followers of Bacon, agriculture declined, lives were lost in skirmishes, and female delicacy was not respected by the lawless insurgents. From these enormities the country was relieved

by the timely death of their instigator. Deprived of their head, the malcontents were incapable of union, and each one made the best terms possible for himself.

Berkley was reinstated in the government, and quiet restored.

Meanwhile, the government of England, becoming sensible of the grievances sustained by Virginia, was about to grant her a new charter, with extensive privileges. Every formality had passed, but that of annexing the great seal, when the news of Bacon's rebellion reaching England, it was withheld, and thus another great evil was inflicted on the

1677.

Virginia receives a charter.

interests of the colony, by that bad citizen. After the restoration of tranquillity, a charter was, however, granted, but with restricted powers; the suppressed charter having secured the people from British taxation, and the one granted, expressly allowing it.

Mass. purchases Maine.

The same year, 1677, a controversy, which had subsisted for some time, between the colony of Massachusetts and the heirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, relative to the Province of Maine, was settled in England, and the province assigned to the heirs of Gorges. Upon this, Massachusetts purchased the title, and the territory became a part of that colony.

Two years after, a commission was made out, by order of Charles II. for the separation of New Hampshire from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and its erection into a royal province. The assembly was to be chosen by the people, the president and council to be appointed by the crown. For several years after this separation, a controversy subsisted between these colonies, relative to their respective boundaries.

1679.

N. H. becomes a separate royal government.

In 1680, the inhabitants of Charleston, South Carolina, laid out a new city at Oyster Point, between Ashley and Cooper rivers, to which the name of the first settlement was given. The same year commenced a war with the Westoes, a powerful tribe of Indians, which threatened great injury to the colony ; a peace was, however, concluded the following year.

1680.

N. Charleston founded. War with the Westoes

Sir Edmund Andross, governor of New-York, under pretence of the claims of the duke of York, usurped the government both in East and West Jersey. The proprietors resisted this usurpation, when Andross, instigated by the duke of York, seized them, transported them to New York, and there imprisoned them. He next laid a duty upon all goods imported, and upon the property of all who came to settle in the country. The people complained, the proprietors demanded satisfaction, and the duke claimed to be heard by commissioners. To this the parties agreed. The commissioners met, and after hearing the case, they adjudged the duties illegal and oppressive : in consequence of which, in 1680, they were removed, and the proprietors reinstated in their government. Edward Billinge was appointed governor, and in the next year, 1681, summoned the first general assembly in West Jersey.

1678.

Andross usurps the government of the Jersies.

Another colony was now planted, which grew up under circumstances more peaceful and prosperous than any of the preceding. William Penn, its founder, was the son of Sir William Penn, an admiral in the British navy. In his early youth, he attached himself to the Quakers, a sect, at that time, despised and persecuted. So strong was his attachment, that it could not be shaken by the entreaties of his friends, or the menaces and severity of his father, by whom he was repeatedly turned from the paternal roof. Penn bore all with patience, and when opportunity presented, served his father in the management of his landed estate in Ireland, with such distinguished ability and faithfulness, as raised him a reputation in such affairs. Being appointed one of the assignees of Billinge, he thus became acquainted with the situation of the American colonies ; while the treatment to which himself and the Quakers were subjected, induced him to wish for an asylum from persecution. His father dying, left claims to a large amount against the crown ; and Penn, finding that

1680.

Proprietors are reinstated.

Sketch of life and character of Wm. Penn.

1681.

Penn receives
the grant of
Pennsylvania.

there was a tract yet ungranted, north of Lord Baltimore's patent, solicited, and obtained of Charles II. in 1681, a charter of the country, which was bounded on the east by the river Delaware, extending westward five degrees

of longitude, stretching to the north, from twelve miles northward of Newcastle, to the 43d degree of latitude, and limited on the south by a circle of twelve miles, drawn around Newcastle, to the beginning of the 40th degree of latitude. It was called by the king, Pennsylvania.

1682.

Of the territories.

Soon after the date of the grant by the king, two other conveyances were made to Penn, by the duke of York, which embraced the present state of Delaware, and were called, the "Territories." They were governed for twenty years, as a part of Pennsylvania. At the same time, Sir George Carteret transferred to Penn, and eleven associates, his right in the province of East Jersey.

E. Jersey trans-
ferred to Penn.

Philadelphia
founded.

Penn embarked from England in August, with one hundred settlers, and arrived at Newcastle on the 24th

of October. They cleared and improved the lands, and built a new town, which, as a perpetual memento of brotherly love, received the name of Philadelphia. Previous to leaving England, Penn had paid much attention to the principles of government, and his speculations, as shown in his writings, and exhibited in the government which he formed for his colony, before settling it, evinced a great, an original, and a benevolent mind. Among all the moral regulations which

Penn's princi-
ples of gov't.

he attempted to introduce, there were, it is true, several which did not bear the test of experience, but enough re-

mains, to justify historians in considering Penn, as one of the greatest lawgivers of modern times. It was at a period when religious toleration was scarcely known in the civilized world, that by the laws of Penn, it was declared, that no person acknowledging one God, and living peaceably in society, should be molested for his opinions or his practice, touching religious matters. He followed the peculiar tenets of his sect,

Just treatment
of the natives.

in prohibiting any appeal to arms. Wishing to pursue justice, as well as benevolence and peace, Penn, soon

after his arrival, met a council of the native chiefs, and amicably purchased of them such lands as the new settlers wished to occupy. So perfectly satisfied were the native proprietors, of his upright dealings, that for seventy years, they lived at peace with his colony.

Rapid settle-
ment of Penn-
sylvania.

In less than one year after Penn came into the province, about thirty ships arrived with settlers, principally Quakers, whose chief object was to make provision for

the free enjoyment of their religion. In 1684, he returned to England, leaving his province in a happy and prosperous situation, under the administration of five commissioners, chosen by the people.

In 1682, Andross was removed from the government of New-York. Thomas Dongan succeeded him in 1683, when the first general assembly, in that province, was convoked, consisting of a council and eighteen representatives. By the declaration of the governor, they were invested with the sole power of enacting laws and levying taxes; but the laws could have no force, until ratified by the duke. Gov. Dongan surpassed all his predecessors, in attention to the affairs with the Indians, by whom he was highly esteemed.

1683.

Gov. Dongan calls the first general assembly in N. York.

About this time, the French began to extend their discoveries along the great lakes and the Mississippi. Mons. De la Salle, under the auspices of Louis XIV. embarked from Rochelle, in France, during the year 1678, on his first voyage of discovery. He reached Quebec, and proceeding up the St. Lawrence and lake Ontario, erected fort Niagara, at the junction of this lake with Niagara river.* From thence his course was through lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, into the river St. Joseph's, and across the portage from this river to the Illinois. While here, he built a fort, and sent Father Hennepin, a Franciscan missionary, and others, to explore the country, who ascended the Mississippi as far as the falls of St. Anthony. In 1680, La Salle returned to fort Frontenac, on lake Ontario. The following year, he revisited the fort on the Illinois, descended this river to the Mississippi, and passed down the Mississippi to the gulf of Mexico. He returned to Quebec by the way of the lakes, and from thence to France. Another expedition was fitted out, in 1684. La Salle following his former course, proceeded to the gulf of Mexico, and built a fort fifty leagues south of the Mississippi, near the bay of St. Louis. On his return he was assassinated by one of his own party. Upon these discoveries of La Salle, the French claimed the whole country watered by the Mississippi and its branches, which, in honour of king Louis XIV. was named Louisiana. Spain claimed the same country, on account of its discovery by De Soto; and Great Britain, from its having been granted in the patents for its colonies, and also, from its alleged discovery by Col. Wood, who had been sent from Virginia to explore it, as early as 1654.

1678-1684.

French extend their discoveries—La Salle's expeditions.

La Salle sends out father Hennepin & others.

France, Spain, and Eng. claim the country of the Mississippi.

At the instigation of the French, the Five Nations, who had by this time extended their conquests west of the English settlements, as far as the Mississippi, commenced depredations on the back parts of Maryland

1684.

Hostilities of the Five Nations. Peace restored.

* As La Salle's route may be traced on the Maps of the later periods of the history, it was deemed unnecessary to extend the limits of that connected with this period, exclusively, for the purpose of delineating it.

and Virginia. This occasioned a convention at Albany, in 1684, when they were induced to enter into a treaty of peace with Lord Howard, governor of Virginia, in behalf of all the settlements. This treaty secured them from further depredations, from this powerful confederacy.

War between
the Five Nations
and Canada.

During the convention, De la Barre, governor of Canada, sent a messenger to complain of the Seneca Indians, for interrupting the trade of the French with the more distant tribes. At the same time, he was determined on the total destruction of the Five Nations, and proceeded to lake Ontario, with 1700 men. Gov. Dongan, notwithstanding contrary directions from the duke of York, informed the Indians of his designs, and promised to assist them. But De la Barre, in consequence of a long delay at fort Frontenac, occasioned by sickness in his army, found himself obliged to conclude a treaty of peace with them, and return to Montreal. De

1689.

Montreal de-
stroyed by the
Five Nations.

Nonville, who succeeded De la Barre, led an army against the confederates, but fell into an ambuscade, and was defeated. In 1689, 1200 men of the Five Nations, invaded the island of Montreal, sacked all the plantations, and murdered men, women, and children. One thousand were killed, and twenty-six taken prisoners. The Five Nations lost but three in this expedition. In consequence of these disastrous events, the strength of the French became weakened, and the collisions between the French and English, the causes of which existed at this period, were, happily for the latter, delayed.

SECTION V.

Complaints
made in Eng.
against Mass.
and proceedings
to annul her
charter.

THE people of Massachusetts had continued to disregard the navigation acts, and refused to send agents to the court of England, to answer for the charges of neglect brought against them. Edward Randolph was therefore sent from Great Britain, in 1679, as inspector of customs in New England, but was resolutely opposed in the execution of the duties of his office, and soon returned. In 1682, he came again to Boston, bringing a letter of complaint from the committee of plantations, in England, who directed that agents should repair to the court of London, fully empowered to act for the colonies. It was understood to be the intention of the king, to procure from these agents a surrender of the charter of Massachusetts, or to annul it by a suit in his courts, in order that he might appoint officers, who would be sub-

servient to his views. The agents were instructed to make no concessions of their chartered privileges, and the king being informed of this, proceeded, according to forms of law, to cancel the charter. Massachusetts was, however, informed that in case of peaceable submission, the government should be regulated for her good. The representatives of the people, in general court, would listen to no conditions, but such as allowed them to retain all those privileges, which their charter conferred; while the governor and associates were in favour of humble submission to the king's pleasure. Hence, the commencement of two parties in the colonies, the patriots, or those who defended the rights of the colonists, and the prerogative men, or those who were in favour of unqualified submission to royal authority. Agents were again sent to make defence of their rights, but before they had arrived, the charter was annulled.

1684.

Her charter is annulled.

King Charles II. died in 1685, before he had time to adjust the affairs of the colony, and was succeeded by the duke of York, under the title of James II. James determined that there should be no free governments in his dominions, and soon after his accession, ordered writs to be issued against the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island. These colonies presented letters and addresses, which, containing expressions of humble duty, the king construed them into an actual surrender of their charters; and, affecting to believe that all impediments to the royal will were removed, proceeded to establish a temporary government over New England. Sir Joseph Dudley was appointed president, in 1686, but in December, of the same year, he was succeeded by Sir Edmund Andross, as governor general, in whom, with a council, was vested all the powers of government.

1685.

James II. succeeds Charles II.

Attempts to deprive the colonies of their charters.

1686.

Andross gov. of N. England.

Sir Edmund began his government with the most flattering professions of his regard to the public safety and happiness. It was, however, well observed, that "Nero concealed his tyrannical disposition more years, than Sir Edmund did months." He assumed control over the press, and appointed the detested Randolph, licenser. Soon after his arrival in the country, he sent to Connecticut, demanding the surrender of her charter. This being refused, in 1687, he came with a guard to Hartford, during the session of the general assembly, and in person required its delivery. After debating until evening, the charter was produced, and laid on the table where the assembly were sitting. The lights were instantly extinguished, and one of the members privately conveyed it away, and hid it in the cavity of a large oak tree. The candles were officiously relighted, but the charter was gone; and no discovery could be made of it, or the person who carried

1687.

Attempts to take the charter of Conn.; assumes its gov't.

away.* The government of the colony was, however, surrendered to Andross.

General sup-
pression of
charter gov'ts.

Massachusetts, where Sir Edmund resided, was the principal seat of despotism and suffering. In 1688, New-York and New Jersey were added to his jurisdiction; and for more than two years, there was a general suppression of charter governments throughout the colonies.

1689.

Rumour of the
accession of
King Wm.: its
effects.

At last, Sir Edmund, who was perfectly devoted to the arbitrary measures of King James, by his tyranny in New England, drew upon himself the hatred of the whole people. When, therefore, it was rumoured, that William, prince of Orange, had landed in England, and was seated on the throne, determining no longer to endure his despotic rule, they seized and imprisoned both him and Randolph. The government, in the mean time, was vested in the hands of a committee for the safety of the people, of which committee Gov. Bradstreet was chosen president.

When the news from Europe reached New-York, it caused the smothered flame of opposition to burst forth. A general disaffection to the government had prevailed among the people: and intelligence that the inhabitants of England had resolved to dethrone James, and offer the crown of England to William, prince of Orange, elevated the hopes of the disaffected. But no active measures were taken, till after the

Leisler placed at
the head of the
gov't of N. York.

rupture at Boston, when several captains of the militia convened, to concert measures in favour of the prince of Orange. Jacob Leisler was the most active of them, and possessed, in the greatest degree, the esteem of the people. He was not, however, a man of talents, but received the guiding impulses of his conduct from the superior energies of his son-in-law, Jacob Milborne. By the counsels of this intriguing Englishman, Leisler, at the head of forty-nine men, entered and took possession of the fort of New-York, and declared in favour of William, prince of Orange; but this declaration, opposed by the authority of the city, at first had few adherents; until a report got footing, that three ships were approaching, with orders from King William: when his party was augmented by the addition of six captains and four hundred men from New-York, and seventy men from East Chester.

Col. Dongan, who was about to leave the province, then lay embarked in the bay, having, a short time previous, resigned his govern-

* At this time, (1829,) 142 years after this interesting transaction, is existing, in a fine state of preservation, the oak tree in which the charter was concealed.

“Long may'st thou flourish, venerated tree,
Which, patriot-like, hast borne within thy bosom
Thy country's dearest rights.”

ment to Francis Nicholson, the lieutenant governor. Nicholson and his party were not, however, long able to contend with their opponents; and the night on which the last declaration was signed, he joined Gov. Dongan.

Governor and lieutenant governor leave the province.

Leisler, being in possession of the force, sent an address to William and Mary, as soon as he received the news of their accession to the throne. This man's sudden investiture with the supreme power of the province, and the probable prospect of the king's approbation of his conduct, could not but excite the envy and jealousy of the late council and magistrates, who had refused to join his party. Col. Bayard and Mr. Courtland, the latter of whom was mayor of the city, were at the head of his opponents; but finding it impossible to raise a party against him in New-York, they retired to Albany, and there endeavoured to create opposition. Leisler, fearful of their influence, and wishing to extinguish the jealousies of the people, thought it prudent to admit several trusty persons, to participate in that power which the militia had committed solely to himself. In the month of December, a packet arrived, directed "to Francis Nicholson, Esq. or, in his absence, to such, as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace, and administering the laws, in their Majesties' province of New-York, in America." When this packet came to hand, Leisler considered it as directed to himself, and, from this time, issued all kinds of commissions in his own name, assuming the title, as well as authority of lieutenant governor.

The people of Albany, in the mean time, were determined to hold the garrison and city for King William, independent of Leisler, and on the 26th of October, formed themselves into a convention for that purpose; but Milborne, commissioned by Leisler, undertook its reduction. Upon his arrival there, a great number of the inhabitants armed themselves, and repaired to the fort, then commanded by Mr. Schuyler; and Milborne soon after retreated from Albany. In the spring he commanded another party upon the same errand; and the distress of the country, in consequence of an Indian irruption, gave him the desired success. No sooner was he possessed of the garrison, than most of the principal members of the convention left the place; upon which their effects were arbitrarily seized and confiscated.

1690.

Milborne takes the fort at Alb'y.

When the intelligence was confirmed, that Mary and William were firmly seated on the throne of England, they were proclaimed in all the colonies with demonstrations of joy. Rhode Island and Connecticut resumed their former charters; but on the application of Massachusetts, the king resolutely refused to restore her former system of government. Andross, Randolph, and others were ordered to England for trial.

Conn. and R. I. resume their charters. Mass. denied hers.

The change of government, produced by the removal of Andross, left New Hampshire in an unsettled state. Mason had died in 1685, leaving his two sons heirs to his claims. The people earnestly petitioned to be again united with Massachusetts, but their attempts were effectually frustrated by Samuel Allen, who purchased of the heirs of Mason their title to New Hampshire. Allen received a commission as governor of the colony, and assumed the government in 1692. The people reluctantly submitted to be distinct from Massachusetts.

Allen purchases
the title to New
Hampshire.

New Hampshire, from its frontier situation, was peculiarly exposed to Indian barbarity. In 1689, Dover was attacked by a party of the Pennicooks, and other eastern Indians.

1689.
Dover surprised
by the Indians.

They had been irritated by the conduct of Major Waldron, the principal citizen, and commander of the garrison. Being prepared for attack, they sent in the evening some squaws, who were admitted to lodge in the fortified houses. At the dead of night, these women gave a concerted signal, opened the doors, and the Indians rushed in. Twenty-three persons were killed, and twenty-nine carried captive to Canada. On Major Waldron they took a vengeance worthy of demons. Raising him on a long table, in an armed chair, they used the most taunting language, and each Indian in turn approaching him, cut gashes across his breast, and said, "I cross out my account." When, at length, faint with the loss of blood, he fell, his own sword, held beneath, received him, and ended his existence.

King William's
war commenc'd.

When James II. abdicated the throne of England, he fled to France for aid; and, on the accession of William and Mary, in 1689, the two nations became involved in a war, which soon extended to the provinces in America. De Nonville, governor of Canada, was recalled, and was succeeded by Count Frontenac, who, in the winter of 1690, despatched three parties of French and Indians against the English settlements, at Schenectady, (New York,) Salmon Falls, near the Piscataqua, and Casco, in Maine.

1690.
Schenectady
destroyed by
French and
Indians.

The detachment against Schenectady entered the place in the night of the 18th of February, and separating into small parties, invested every house at the same time. The people were unalarmed, until their doors were broken open, and themselves dragged from their beds. Their dwellings were set on fire; men and women were butchered and scalped; and children had their brains dashed out, or were cast into the flames. Sixty persons perished by the hands of the savages; twenty-seven were carried captive, and most of the small number which escaped, lost their limbs in attempting to flee naked, through a deep snow, to Albany.

The expedition against Salmon Falls was conducted by Sieur Heurtel. He surprised the place on the 18th of March, at day break. The people, after a brave, but ineffectual resistance, surrendered. About fifty were killed, and fifty-four taken captive. After burning the place, Heurtel, on his return to Canada, met the third party from Quebec. Joining their forces, they proceeded to Casco, and destroyed the fort and settlement at that place. Other excursions were made, not long after, into the eastern quarter of New England, but the inhabitants soon deserted the settlements, and retired to the fort at Wells.

Salmon Falls and Casco are also destroyed.

Roused by these barbarities, New England and New-York resolved to attempt the conquest of Canada, and the French posts in Acadia. In 1690, an expedition was planned by the court of Massachusetts against Port Royal; and a fleet of small vessels, under the command of Sir William Phipps, set sail in April, for the reduction of that place, of which they made an easy conquest. Sir William took possession of the whole coast, from Port Royal to the New England settlements, and returned in about one month. The plunder was so considerable, that it was judged sufficient to defray the expense of the expedition.

Port Royal taken by Sir Wm. Phipps.

This successful attempt, together with a hope of enlisting in their favour, more powerfully, the Indian tribes, and a wish to recommend themselves to the king, induced the colonists to attempt a second invasion of the French territories. It was designed that two thousand men should penetrate into Canada, by lake Champlain, and attack Montreal, at the same time that the armament, by sea, should invest Quebec. The expectation of success depended principally on the division of the French force, which would be occasioned by this plan of attack. The troops

1690.

Unsuccessful attempt on Quebec.

which were designed for Montreal, advanced as far as the falls of Wood Creek, but not being supplied with batteaux or provisions, sufficient for crossing the lake, returned to Albany. The fleet, under the direction of Sir William Phipps, sailed in August, but did not arrive at Quebec till October, when the officers spent two or three days in idle consultation, which gave Count Frontenac time to arrive from Montreal, with the whole strength of Canada. A demand was made by Phipps of the surrender of the place; to which the French governor gave no other reply than the discharge of his cannon. An unsuccessful attempt was made to force the town, after which, on the 10th, the troops re-embarked. Phipps returned to Boston, with the loss of several vessels and a considerable number of troops. The expenses of this expedition caused the first emission of paper money in New England. Its defeat has been, perhaps unjustly, attributed to want of conduct in Sir William Phipps. New-York was to have furnished batteaux and provi-

sions; but, in consequence of Leisler's usurpation, the state was divided by factions, and Milborne, who was commissary, made no effectual provision for either. This circumstance, more than any other, contributed to the failure of the expedition.

The effect of this failure was most unfortunate for the colonies. The soldiers, on their return, were on the point of mutiny for their wages. The Five Nations blamed the English for their inactivity, and appeared inclined to make peace with the French. The enemy were encouraged, and the frontiers exposed to still greater ravages. To prevent, in some

1691.

Gen. Schuyler
defeats the
French at La
Prairie.

measure, these ill effects, Major Peter Schuyler, of Albany, in the summer of the year 1691, collected three hundred Mohawks, passed lake Champlain, and penetrating to La Prairie, engaged eight hundred French troops, and, after a severe conflict, killed a number equal to that of his own. The loss of the French was attributed to their ignorance of the Indian mode of warfare.

1690.

French Protest-
ants settle in Va.
and Carolina.

During the year 1690, King William sent to Virginia a large body of French Protestants, who had been compelled to leave their country by the arbitrary measures of Louis XIV. To a part of these, lands were allotted on the banks of James river, and others settled in Carolina, on the banks of the Santee, and in Charleston. They introduced the culture of the vine, and were among the most useful settlers of the province.

Seth Sothel's
usurpation.

The evils of a proprietary government were severely felt in Carolina. Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, had been made governor of the northern colony, but, after a course of unjust and oppressive conduct, he was tried and banished by the assembly. Arriving suddenly in Charleston, he received the aid of a powerful faction, and seized the government of South Carolina, which he held for two years.

1691.

Sloughter go-
vernors N. York.

King William now turned his attention to the northern colonies, and commissioned Henry Sloughter, as governor of New-York. Never was a governor more necessary to the province, and never was one more destitute of every qualification for governing, than this man. If Leisler had delivered the garrison to his successor on his first arrival, he might have attracted his favourable notice, and that of the crown; but, intoxicated with a love of power, he refused to surrender, and shut himself up in the fort. From this time, he lost all credit with the governor, who joined the party against him. On a second demand also, he refused to deliver the fort, but sent out two persons, one of whom was Milborne, on pretence of conferring with the governor. Sloughter, considering them as rebels, accordingly confined them. Leisler attempted to escape, but was arrested with many of his adherents,

and brought to trial. In vain did they plead the merit of their zeal for King William ; Leisler and his son-in-law were condemned to death for high treason. Immediately after, business called Sloughter to Albany, and to prevent disorders arising on account of the prisoners, it was advised, that they should be executed before his departure. To such a violent step the governor objected, unwilling to sacrifice two men who had so vigorously contributed to the revolution, and so warmly appeared for the king. After the enemies of Leisler had in vain endeavoured to bring him to sanction this precipitate measure, it is said, that amidst the inebriety of a feast, which had been prepared for this purpose, the company prevailed on him to sign the death warrant ; and before he recovered his senses, the prisoners were executed. Their property was confiscated ; but on presentation of their case to the king, it was restored to their families.

Leisler seized
and executed.

In none of the colonies, did the revolution in England produce a greater change than in Massachusetts. In 1692, King William, who had refused to restore its former government, granted a new charter, which, extending its limits, but restricting its privileges, commenced a new era in the history of this colony. Massa-

1692.

Mass. obtains a
new charter, en-
larging her ter-
ritories, but re-
stricting her li-
berties.

chusetts now embraced, besides the former territory, Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia ; extended north to the river St. Lawrence, and west to the South sea, excepting New Hampshire and New-York ; and included also, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and the Elizabeth islands.

Almost the only privilege which the new charter allowed the people, was that of choosing their representatives. The king reserved to himself the right of appointing the governor, lieutenant governor, and secretary of the colony ; and of repealing the laws within three years after their passage. He authorized, in certain cases, an appeal from the tribunal of the colony to himself and his council. The legislature was now composed of three branches ; the governor, appointed by the king ; the representatives, elected by the people ; and a council, chosen by the representatives ; their choice, however, being subject to the negative of the governor. Other powers, equally dangerous to the people with that of negating their choice of councillors, were, by this charter, entrusted to that magistrate. He could reject all laws, appoint all military and judicial officers, and, at his pleasure, adjourn, or even dissolve the assembly. These oppressive restrictions had, in the event, an effect the reverse of that designed by the government of England ; for, instead of uniting the colonies more closely to the crown, their operation, by irritating more and more the stern patriots of Massachusetts, was, as will be seen, one of the principal causes of the separation of the colonies, from the mother country.

Geographical notices of the country at the close of the Fourth Epoch, or in 1692, the date of the Fourth Map, &c.

The settlements in Virginia had, during this period, rapidly extended. Maryland, the settlement of which was hardly commenced at the date of the last Epoch, was now a flourishing colony, and divided into three counties. The settlement of New Jersey had commenced; Elizabethtown, Burlington, and Newark were founded. The present state of New Jersey was, at that period, divided into East and West Jersey: East Jersey alone contained 700 families. The colony of Pennsylvania, though recently formed, was flourishing. Philadelphia contained 300 buildings. The province of New-York was divided into ten counties, and contained nearly thirty towns. New-York had become an incorporated city. In Massachusetts many new towns had been founded, and several on the borders of Connecticut river, were formed into a county named Hampshire. The colony of Plymouth, which contained three counties, viz. Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol, had united with Massachusetts; Massachusetts now included the provinces of Maine and Nova Scotia, as far northward as the river St. Lawrence, also Elizabeth islands, and Nantucket, and Martha's Vineyard. The colony of New Hampshire contained but four townships, but had separated from Massachusetts, and formed its own government. Connecticut contained twenty-six small towns, and Rhode Island nine. Settlements were made during this period in Carolina, one on the banks of the Cape Fear river, another between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, in which old Charlestown was founded, and a third around Albemarle sound. Carolina was divided into Berkley, Colleton, and Craven counties.

Population.—Virginia contained 50,000 inhabitants; Maryland, 16,000; New England, 120,000. Exact population of the other colonies unknown.

Principal towns.—Jamestown, Philadelphia, New-York, Boston, Salem, and St. Mary's. Philadelphia contained 2,000 inhabitants, New-York nearly 6,000; and Boston 1,500 families.

Militia.—New-York, 2,000; Connecticut, 2,500; Rhode Island, ten companies of foot.

Revenue, Exports, &c.—The revenue of Virginia, arising from the productions of the colony, of which tobacco was the principal, amounted to 100,000 pounds a year. The annual exports of New-York, besides peas, beef, pork, tobacco, and peltry, were about 60,000 bushels of wheat. The value of the exports from Connecticut were about 9,000 pounds yearly. The exports from Rhode Island, consisted principally of horses and provisions; amount unknown. Massachusetts owned 124 vessels of various sizes, and Connecticut twenty-four.

Colleges.—Harvard University was the only one in operation, but a charter had been obtained for William and Mary's College, in Virginia.

Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period extending from 1643 to 1692.

	Year in which they died.
THOMAS HOOKER, first pastor of the church in Hartford, Conn.—author of “Church Discipline,” and many volumes of Sermons.	1647.
JOHN WINTHROP, first governor of Massachusetts.	1649.
JOHN COTTON, minister of Boston, an eminent divine—publications numerous, chiefly theological.	1652.
EDWARD WINSLOW, governor of Plymouth colony.	1655.
MILES STANDISH, first military commandant at Plymouth.	1656.
WILLIAM BRADFORD, second governor of Plymouth colony, and one of the first settlers of New England.	1657.
THEOPHILUS EATON, first governor of New Haven.	
JOHN NORTON, a celebrated divine—author of “The Meritorious price of Man's Redemption,” “Orthodox Evangelist,” &c.	1663.
RICHARD NICHOLS, governor of New-York and New Jersey.	Unknown.
JOHN ENDICOT, governor of Massachusetts.	1665.
JOHN DAVENPORT, first minister of New Haven, and one of the founders of that colony—author of “The Saint's Anchor,” “A Treatise upon Civil Government,” “Sermons,” &c.	1670.
CHARLES CHAUNCEY, D. D. president of Harvard College, and a distinguished scholar—published a volume of Sermons.	1671.
JOHN YEAMANS, governor of South Carolina.	Unknown.
LEONARD CALVERT, first governor of Maryland.	1676.
JOHN WINTHROP, governor of Connecticut.	
WILLIAM BERKLEY, governor of Virginia.	1677.
WILLIAM CODDINGTON, the founder of the colony, and a distinguished patriot of Rhode Island.	1678.
ROGER WILLIAMS, governor, and a distinguished patriot of Providence plantations—author of “Truth and Peace.”	1683.
THOMAS DONGAN, governor of New-York.	Unknown.
EDWARD RANDOLPH, an agent sent from Great Britain, to ascertain the state of the New England colonies, &c.	Unknown.
JOHN ELLIOT, called the apostle to the Indians—author of “Tears of Repentance,” “Jews in America,” &c.	1690.

PART V.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Massachusetts obtains } **FOURTH EPOCH, 1692,** { a new charter, &c.

TO THE

First settlement of } **FIFTH EPOCH, 1733.** { Oglethorpe seeks the
Georgia made by Gen. } friendship of the Indian
Oglethorpe and others. } chiefs.



SECTION I.

1692. SIR WILLIAM PHIPPS arrived at Boston, May 14, 1692,
Sir Wm. Phipps bearing the new charter, and a commission, constituting
arrives with a him governor and captain general of Massachusetts.
new charter. ————— He was received with the most flattering tokens of distinction, and entered immediately upon the duties of his office.

Amidst the distresses under which the New England colonies laboured, from the war with the French and Indians, others of a different, though not less destructive nature, opened upon the people of Massachusetts, in 1692. This is the period of what is called the "Salem witchcraft." This delusion, with respect to the supposed intercourse with evil spirits, the first settlers brought with them from the mother country. Laws making witchcraft a capital crime, existed in England, and were early enacted in Massachusetts. The mania began in Springfield, in 1645, when some individuals were accused of witchcraft, but were at last acquitted. Some few years after, persons at Charlestown, Dorchester, and Cambridge, were accused, and actually executed for the supposed offence. But Salem was the devoted place where this weakness was converted into a phrensy. The belief of this fearful and mysterious evil, had prepossessed the public mind, when some young women, perhaps in part deluded by their own imaginations, complained of being strangely affected. Their complaints, attributed to this alarming cause, were reported, and doubtless magnified, until they became objects of

universal attention, and those who experienced them, prime heroines in a gossiping and credulous neighbourhood. This, doubtless, encouraged others to set up for the same distinction. Witches, of course, increased with the number bewitched. At first, it was old women only, who were suspected of having leagued with the devil, to inflict upon the diseased, the various torments which they asserted that they felt; and which they often appeared to the spectators actually to feel. The magistrates, partaking of the general mania, pursued a course, which placed the accused in situations, where "they had need to be magicians not to be convicted of magic." They confronted them with those who accused them, and asked, Why do you afflict these children? If answered, I do not afflict them, they commanded them to look upon them; at which the children would fall into fits, and then declare they were thus troubled by the persons apprehended. On such evidence were these unfortunate persons condemned to execution.

Advantage was doubtless taken of this state of things, to gratify private resentment or rivalry. The accused were no longer old and poor women only, but witches were found of every age, in every rank and situation. More than a hundred women, many of them of fair characters and reputable families, were apprehended, examined, and generally committed to prison. Twenty suffered death. No person was safe; and the lives of the best were at the mercy of the most worthless of the community.

Society now saw its error, and was struck with remorse. The prison doors were opened, and all confined for witchcraft set free. Several of the jurors, and one of the judges, who had assisted at these trials, voluntarily made public confessions, and asked pardon of God and man; and a day of public penance and prayer was ordained to be observed by all, for their common sin.

Gov. Sloughter died in 1691; and in 1692, Col. Benjamin Fletcher arrived with the commission of governor. Gov. Fletcher was a good soldier, and having fortunately secured the friendship of Major Schuyler, he was, by his advice, enabled to conduct the Indian affairs of the colony, to the acceptance of the people. He was, however, avaricious, irascible, and a bigot to his own mode of faith, which was that of the church of England. Under pretence of introducing uniformity into the language and literature, as well as the religion of the colony, the inhabitants of which were a heterogeneous mixture of Dutch and English, he brought into the assembly, a bill for the settlement, throughout the province, of Episcopalian ministers, such as should be by himself selected. The assembly, after much debate, agreed that ministers should be settled in certain parishes, but left the choice to the people. This was very offensive to the governor, who, after an angry speech,

1693.

Gov. Fletcher introduces Episcopacy into New York.

dissolved the assembly. Episcopalian ministers were, however, settled in several parishes; and thus was introduced a religious order, which, at this day, forms so respectable a portion of the population of the state.

Col. Fletcher was empowered to take command of the militia and garrison of Connecticut. That colony immediately despatched General Winthrop as an agent to remonstrate with the king and council against this extraordinary power. Col. Fletcher, however, went to Hartford, in 1693, and, in his majesty's name, demanded the surrender of the militia to his command; but, after a resolute and spirited refusal on the part of Connecticut, the demand was withdrawn.

Conn. militia re-
fuse obedience
to Fletcher.

William Penn, still in England, had fallen under the displeasure of King William, from a suspicion of his holding a treasonable correspondence with the exiled King James, and on vague charges to this effect, he was a number of times imprisoned. In 1692, the government of Pennsylvania was taken from him, and Fletcher appointed by the crown, governor of that province. After the most severe scrutiny, the conduct of Penn, was, however, found to be irreproachable; and in 1694, he was restored to the favour of the king, and reinstated in his government; but not immediately returning to Pennsylvania, he appointed William Markham to be his deputy governor.

1692.

Wm. Penn de-
prived, for two
years, of the
Gov't of Pa.

In 1693, at the request of the Carolinians, the constitution of Mr. Locke was abrogated by the proprietors, and each colony was afterwards ruled by a governor, council, and house of representatives.

1693.

Mr. Locke's
constitution
abrogated.

The war still continuing between England and France, in 1693, an English fleet, under Sir Francis Wheeler, then in the West Indies, was ordered to repair to Quebec, to act conjointly with forces from New England, in the reduction of Canada. This expedition was prevented by the prevalence of a malignant fever, which destroyed most of the troops belonging to the fleet.

1694.

Settlements on
Oyster river de-
stroyed.

The French in Canada and Nova Scotia, by giving premiums for scalps, and purchasing the English prisoners, stimulated the eastern Indians to constant hostilities. In 1694, the settlements on Oyster river were surprised, twenty houses burned, and one hundred of the inhabitants murdered, or carried into captivity.

Sir William Phipps, for the purpose of securing Acadia to Massachusetts, had erected a fort at Pemaquid, which was considered as controlling the whole of that province, over which the government of Massachusetts was now extended. The inhabitants, having been so long under the control of France, it was soon perceived that authority could only be maintained

Gov't of Mass.
extended over
Acadia.

by a military force, which it would be too burdensome to support. Thus situated, Villeborne, who was commissioned by the king of France, as governor of Acadia, easily recovered Port Royal. About the same time, a force, under Iberville was sent to destroy the fort at Pemaquid. Iberville was joined by the Baron Castine, with two hundred Indians, and on the 14th of August, they invested the fort. The garrison soon capitulated, and the fortifications, which had been erected at great expense, were demolished.

1696.

The French recover Port Royal and Pemaquid.

The Baron Castine was a French nobleman, who had seated himself on the east side of the Penobscot, in the present town of Castine, and before the commencement of this war, as well as during its continuance, appears to have been the instigator of the Indians in their attacks on the English settlements. To promote his designs, he married, and had living with him, at one time, six Indian wives. He had, at the same time, several Roman Catholic priests, at his palace. By their aid, and the efforts of his own genius, he acquired great influence over the natives. He not only furnished them fire-arms, but taught them their use; and such was his success, that at the commencement of Philip's war, the knowledge of gunpowder and fire-arms was universally extended among the savages in the northern part of New England. The baron was considered the most dangerous enemy of the English, and they, at various times, attempted to capture him; but, though his fortress was taken and plundered, his person could never be secured. The encroachments of the French alarmed the people of New Hampshire; and Capt. Church was sent with a body of troops to check their further progress.

Baron Castine.

1696.

Proceeding to Acadia, he committed depredations on the French inhabitants, and made an unsuccessful effort to dislodge Villeborne from his fort on the river St. John.

Expedition against the French.

The whole of Acadia, notwithstanding this inadequate resistance, appears to have become independent of Massachusetts, and to have resumed its allegiance to France.

Dissensions still continued in Carolina, between the proprietary governors and the inhabitants. Discord arose, in consequence of the English Episcopalians being unwilling to comply with the request of the proprietors, to admit the French Protestants, who had settled in the colony, to a seat in the assembly. Considering the French as their hereditary enemies, and regarding their difference of religion, with all the bitterness of the times, the English could not be reconciled to their participating in the rights of freemen. They effected to consider them as foreigners, and proceeded to enforce the laws of England against them, as such. They even declared that marriages solemnized by French ministers were void;

Dissensions in Carolina.

and that their estates could not descend to their children. The protestants, countenanced by the proprietary governor, peaceably submitted for a time, to the discouragements of such a situation ; and remained in the province, hoping for a favourable change.

The people, still complaining of their governors, and quarrelling among themselves, John Archdale, one of the proprietors was sent from England in 1695, as governor of North and South Carolina, with

1695. full power to redress all grievances. Having restored
Gov. Archdale restores order. order, the next year, he left the country, with the prospect of future peace ; but without giving to the French, the immediate possession of all their civil privileges. In a few years, however, their correct deportment overcame all prejudice, and they were admitted to the rights of citizens and freemen.

Rice introduced from Africa. About this time a vessel from Madagascar touched at Carolina. The captain presented Governor Archdale with a bag of seed rice, giving him, at the same time, instructions as to the manner of its culture. The seed was divided among several planters, and from this accident arose the cultivation of this vegetable, which has since proved so much a staple commodity in Carolina.

1697. In 1697, the French in Canada planned an attack on the English colonies, and a large fleet, under the Marquis de Nesmond, an officer of distinguished bravery, was sent from France, to co-operate in the design. De Nesmond was ordered by his sovereign, to proceed to Newfoundland, and there secure the conquests which the French had recently made. He was next, to unite his forces with those of Frontenac, the governor of Canada ; and jointly with him make a descent upon Boston ; range the coast of New England, and burn the shipping : and if time allowed, proceed to New-York, and reduce that place. The troops under Frontenac, were then to return through the interior of the country to Canada. The inhabitants of New England were greatly alarmed, at the intelligence of this invasion, and made every exertion to prepare themselves for defence. Fortunately for them, De Nesmond arrived too late in the season for the accomplishment of his purpose ; and of this extensive plan, so formidable in prospect, no other evils were experienced by the colonies, than a distressing alarm and an expensive preparation for defence.

1697. In September of this year, 1697, a peace was concluded between France and England at Ryswic, in Germany. By the treaty of Ryswic it was stipulated that France and England should mutually restore to each other all conquests made during the war. The rights and pretensions of each to certain places, were, however, left indefinite, and were to be determined at some future day, by commissioners. Hence, the country

Unsuccessful attempt of the French to destroy the northern colonies.

Peace of Ryswic terminates King William's war.

eastward of the Kennebec, and the fisheries of Newfoundland, were open to the claims of both nations, and were afterwards sources of controversy.

In December, the peace of Ryswic was proclaimed at Boston, and hostilities with the French in Canada immediately ceased. The Indians continued their depredations a short time after this event; but, in the course of the next year, general tranquillity was restored. During this war, which was generally called "King William's war," Massachusetts, equally with New Hampshire, suffered from perpetual and distressing incursions of the savages. The frontiers of New-York were in a great degree covered by the Five Nations; over whom Major Schuyler possessed such influence, as to defeat the exertions of Frontenac, to estrange them from the English.

Richard, earl of Bellamont, was appointed to succeed Colonel Fletcher in the government of New-York, in 1695, but did not receive his commission till 1697. He delayed his voyage until after the peace of Ryswic, when he was blown off the coast at Barbadoes, and did not arrive in New-York till 1698, Fletcher having remained gover-

1698.

Bellamont succeeds Fletcher.

nor until this period. During the late wars the seas were infested with English pirates, some of which had sailed out of New-York; and Fletcher was suspected of having countenanced them. Bellamont was particularly instructed "to put a stop to the growth of piracy," and for this purpose, was promoted to the command, not of New-York only, but of Massachusetts Bay and New Hampshire. As no assistance was afforded by government for this purpose, a private adventure against the pirates was agreed on; and one Kid was recommended to the earl, as a man of integrity and courage, who well knew the pirates and their places of rendezvous.

Kid's Piracy.

Kid undertook the expedition, and sailed from New-York; but he soon turned pirate himself. After some time, he burnt his ship and returned to the colonies. There is a vague tradition still existing, that he brought large quantities of money, which he caused to be concealed in the earth.* He was apprehended at Boston, sent to England for his trial, and there condemned and executed.

* Of all the superstitions existing in the eastern section of the United States, that concerning Kid's money is probably the most singular and the most extensive. There is scarcely an old person who cannot give accounts of those who have dug to find it, and scarcely a town, whose soil has not at some period been disturbed for the same purpose. The devil seems, for some reason, to exercise particular guardianship over this treasure; and, as is said, just as the labourer has dug so far as to see the chest, he rises up in some terrific form, and frightens him away; or more frequently he maliciously moves the chest, or sinks it deeper. The great art of getting at the money is to consist in finding some method of taking off the devil's attention, until the chest can be seized. For this purpose, the most ridiculous scenes have been acted, under the direction of those, who taking advantage of the popular superstition, have acted much the same part as the conjurers of eastern countries. In one

The administration of Bellamont was attended with many difficulties, not only from the depredations of the pirates; but from the embarrassed and divided state of the colony. Fletcher, who had been influenced in his administration by the enemies of Leisler, was the leader of the Anti-Leislerians; and the numerous adherents of that deluded man devoted themselves to Bellamont, as the head of their party. Bellamont

1702.

Cornbury succeeds Bellamont.

died in 1701. Nanfan, the Lieutenant governor, was in the Barbadoes at this time, but soon after arrived and took upon himself the supreme command, until the next year, when Lord Cornbury was elected.

1699.

Third charter granted to Pennsylvania.

In 1699, William Penn again visited his colony.

Finding great complaint and disaffection under the present government, Penn, in 1701, granted them a new charter. The charter gave to the assembly the right of originating bills, which, by the previous charter, was the right of the governor alone; and of amending or rejecting those which might be laid before them. To the governor it gave the right of rejecting bills passed by the assembly, of appointing his own council, and of exercising the whole executive power. This charter was accepted by the assembly, although it did not satisfy the discontents of the people. The

1703.

Territories separate from Pa.

territories rejected it altogether; and in 1703, were allowed to form a separate assembly; Penn still appointing the same governor over both provinces. Immediately

after this third charter was granted, Penn returned to England, and the executive authority was afterwards administered by deputy governors, appointed by himself.

instance, a circle was drawn about the diggers, and others were employed to move around it in a kind of dance, shaking their hands in a singular manner; but it seems the devil was not so much diverted with these manœuvres as was expected, as we do not learn that they found any money. At another time, a man, who used a witch hazel rod, gave information that he had found to a certainty, where the money was concealed, and informed the people that if they would find a fiddler who could play a dancing tune for a long time, without missing a note, after a while, the devil perforce must begin dancing, and could not stop until the musician missed a note. Every thing was done accordingly;—the people dug, the musician played, and the director stood with his rod in his hand. At last the musician missed a note, at which the diviner immediately perceived, by means of his rod, that the devil, released from his enchantment, had at once sunk the chest to such a hopeless depth, that it would be in vain to dig longer. Singular as it may appear, thousands of our people have been, and some still are engaged in this ridiculous search. It is mortifying to acknowledge that so weak a superstition still exists in our enlightened country, where we so justly boast that the means of information are extended to all.

SECTION II.

THE increase of the number of proprietors in West Jersey, had introduced great confusion into the government of that province; disputes constantly arising, not only among the settlers, but between the proprietors themselves. On this account, in 1702, they surrendered

1702.

Government of W. Jersey surrendered to the crown, and united to E. Jersey.

the right of government to the crown. Queen Anne united it with East Jersey, and appointed Lord Cornbury, governor over the province. This princess, daughter of James II. had during this year, succeeded, on the decease of King William, to the British throne.

The fears of England, that her American colonies, would finally throw off her yoke, and erect an independent government appears to have increased with their growing strength. During the preceding year, a bill had been brought into the house of commons,

1701.

to unite all the charter governments to the crown; but it was defeated; an agent of the colonies being present, in the house of lords, to defend their rights.

Attempt to unite the charter governments to the crown.

The governors appointed by the crown, had hitherto been supported by the voluntary appropriations of the colonial assemblies. The government of England perceived, that, by leaving their governors dependent for their salaries, on the pleasure of those they go-

1702.

vernored, they would be likely to subserve their interests, rather than that of the crown: and in 1702, Sir Joseph

Dispute respecting salaries.

Dudley, who arrived as governor of Massachusetts, laid before the assembly, his instructions from the queen, to demand for himself, and the other officers of the crown, a settled, and permanent salary. The assembly, declaring it not agreeable to their present constitution, declined complying with this request. In the other colonies, the same attempt was made, by the royal governors, but notwithstanding their demands met with opposition, they were finally successful. In Massachusetts, this was but the commencement of a series of controversies, between the representatives of the crown, and the representatives of the people, which were continued, through many succeeding years.

The peace of Ryswic was of short duration. The seeds of war were amply sown both in Europe and America. Louis XIV. of France, had violated former treaties, by placing his grandson, the duke of Anjou, on the throne of Spain, and proclaiming, as king of England, Charles Edward, the son of James II. commonly called the Pretender. In America, he claimed, not only all Acadia, but gave orders to Villeborne, his governor, to extend the limits as far as Kennebec. He claimed also the exclusive right to the fisheries on the

1702. coast, and gave express orders for seizing all English
 Great Britain at vessels which should be found fishing upon them. In
 war with France May, 1702, war was proclaimed in England, both against
 and Spain. France and Spain, and their American colonies took an
 active part in the contest.

Before official intelligence had been received, of the declaration of war against Spain, Governor Moore, of South Carolina, proposed to the assembly of that colony, an expedition against St. Augustine, (Florida.) It received their approbation, and a party of Indians and militia, under the enterprising Col. Daniel proceeded by land; while Gov. Moore, with the main body, were transported by water. Col. Daniel entered, and plundered the town; but the Spaniards, with their money and valuables, had retired to the castle. Gov. Moore, on his arrival, found that more artillery would be requisite, to dislodge them from thence, and despatched Col. Daniel to Jamaica, to obtain it. During his absence, the sight of two Spanish ships in the harbour, so intimidated the governor, that he abandoned the siege, and fled precipitately by land to Carolina. By this disgraceful flight, he encountered reproach and odium; and instead of enriching himself, or his companions, which had been the great object of his enterprise, he entailed a heavy debt upon the colony; to discharge which, the first paper currency was issued in Carolina.

Soon after his return, he sought to restore public confidence, by an expedition against the Appalachian Indians, whom the Spaniards had instigated to insolence and hostility. At the head of a body of English, and Indian allies, he marched into the heart of their settlements, and laid in ashes their towns, between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. The captives which were taken, the avaricious governor employed in cultivating his fields, while others were sold for his personal emolument.

While the southern colonies were at war with the Spaniards of Florida, those of the north had a more formidable enemy to encounter, in the French and Indians of Canada. Notwithstanding the eastern Indians had given a solemn assurance, of their determination, to remain at peace with New England; yet they now commenced hostilities, and devastated the whole country, from Casco to Wells.

1704. Deerfield being the frontier town on Connecticut river, soon attracted their attention. In February, 1704, a party of three hundred French and Indians, under Heurtel de Rouville, surprised the place at midnight. The sentinel of the fort being asleep, and the snow of such a depth as to allow them to pass over the palisades, they silently entered, and sent parties in

every direction, who scalped and murdered, or secured as prisoners, the wretched inhabitants. Only a small number escaped by flight. Forty-seven were killed, and one hundred and twelve carried captive to Canada.*

The eastern quarter of New England was also harassed during the whole summer, by the predatory attacks of the French and Indians. Roused by the inhumanities committed at Deerfield, the veteran warrior, Benjamin Church, immediately mounted on horseback, and rode seventy miles, to offer his services to Gov. Dudley, in behalf of his distressed fellow citizens. He was sent with 500 soldiers to the eastern coast of New England, to attack the enemy in their own settlements; and ascending the Penobscot and St. Croix rivers, he destroyed several of their towns, and took a considerable number of prisoners.

1704.
Col. Church de-
feats the French.

During the autumn, the French experienced a severe loss, in the capture of a large and richly laden store ship, which prevented any important military operations during the following year.

In 1705, Vaudreuil, the governor of Canada, proposed to Gov. Dudley, a treaty of neutrality. Dudley protracted the negotiation, under the pretence of consulting the other English governors; during which time, arrangements were made for an exchange of prisoners, and, by this management, a large proportion of those taken at Deerfield, were finally released. In the years 1706 and 1707, small parties of French and Indians hovered about the frontiers, burning, scalping, and taking prisoners, whenever opportunity presented.

1705.
Exchange of pri-
soners.

In 1706, the first Episcopal church in Connecticut was established at Stratford. About this time, Carolina was thrown into consternation by the intelligence of a designed invasion of the French and Spaniards. Every precaution was immediately taken by Gov. Johnson, to put the country in a state of defence. The necessity of this exertion was manifest, on the appearance of five vessels off Charleston harbour, under Monsieur Le Feboure. The French had been aided in this enterprise by the governors of Havana and St. Augustine. But Le Feboure had sailed too hastily, before he was prepared for the expedition; and left Monsieur

1706.
French and Spa-
niards invade
Carolina.

* Early in the assault, the house of the Rev. John Williams, the minister of the place, was attacked by about twenty Indians, who, after murdering two of his children, secured as prisoners, himself, his wife, and his five remaining children. Mrs. Williams, being too feeble to endure the fatigues of a march to Canada, was murdered by the Indians soon after leaving Deerfield. Mr. Williams and his children, after severe suffering, arrived in Canada. After remaining some time, they were all finally redeemed, with the exception of one daughter, who chose to continue among the savages. She adopted their manners and customs, and married one of their number. One of her descendants has been educated in New England, and is now a useful minister of the gospel among the Indians.

Arbuset, who commanded the land forces, to come after him. This was one principal reason of the failure of his adventure. He demanded a surrender of the town, and landed a few of his troops ; but he was received with such spirit, that within a few days he made a precipitate departure ; and a scattering party was left on shore and taken. Some days after, Monsieur Arbuset appeared on the coast, and landed a number of men at Sewee bay. William Rhett, a man of spirit and conduct, who had driven Le Feboure from the coast, sailed to the bay. Capt. Fenwick, at the same time, attacked the enemy by land ; when, after a sharp fire, they fled to their ship. Rhett soon coming to his assistance, took the ship, and about ninety prisoners. This ended the invasion under Monsieur Le Feboure.

In 1707, New England fitted out an expedition against Port Royal, but the attack proved unsuccessful, and the adventurers returned without accomplishing any important service.

1708.

Haverhill
burned.

In 1708, a party of French and Indians plundered and burned Haverhill, on the Merrimac river ; about forty persons were killed, and many were taken prisoners.

Small parties of the enemy made frequent incursions during the season.

In 1708, the churches of Connecticut met at Saybrook to form an ecclesiastical constitution. They framed the famous Saybrook Platform, which was unanimously recommended by the elders of the churches, and adopted as the religious constitution of the colony.*

Ecclesiastical
constitution of
Saybrook.

Lord Cornbury, during his administration in New-York and New Jersey, by his avaricious and despotic government, rendered himself detested by the people. He was profligate and unprincipled : squandering, for his own use, large sums of money, which had been appropriated for public purposes, and left to his disposal as governor. In 1708, the assemblies of New-York and New Jersey, no longer willing to submit to his government, drew up a complaint against him, and sent it to the

Cornbury's bad
administration
in New-York.

1708.

He is succeeded
by Lovelace.

queen, who removed him from his office, and appointed Lord Lovelace in his room. Lord Cornbury was thrown by his creditors into the custody of the sheriff of New-York, where he remained until the death of his father, the earl of Clarendon, when, succeeding to his title and estate, he returned

1710.

Sir R. Hunter
succeeds Love-
lace.

to England. The administration of Lovelace was short, and, on his death, the government devolved on Col. Ingolsby, the lieutenant governor. In 1710, Sir Robert Hunter arrived from England as governor of the province.

* See Appendix H.

In 1707, another colony of French Protestants settled on a branch of the Neuse river, in Carolina. The Palatines of Germany, having been reduced to great indigence by the wars in that country, went to England, to solicit the charity of Queen Anne; and this princess assisted them to make settlements in America. Having obtained for them grants of land, about six or seven thousand arrived during the year 1710, and planted themselves in the provinces of New-York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Carolina.

1710.
Palatines settle
in the provinces.

In 1709, extensive plans were laid, and preparations commenced, both in England and her American colonies, for the reduction of the French power in North America. More important affairs, however, for a time diverted the attention of the parent country, and prevented the accomplishment of their purposes. The depredations of the enemy continuing on the frontiers, the colonists, the following year, solicited and obtained from Queen Anne, a naval force for the reduction of Canada. The fleet destined for the service, was unexpectedly detained, and it was not thought expedient to attempt any thing of great magnitude; and nothing was done, except that a body of troops raised in the colonies, under the command of Col. Nicholson, sailed from Boston, in a fleet, part of which he had brought from England, and besieged Port Royal; which, after a few days' resistance, surrendered, and its name, in honour of the queen, was changed to Annapolis.

1709.
Plans for the re-
duction of the
French power.

1710.
Colonists cap-
ture Port Royal.

Not long after, Col. Nicholson sailed for England, to solicit aid in another expedition against Canada, and returned in June 1711, with orders for the northern provinces to prepare their quotas of troops and provisions, to co-operate with a naval and land force, which was to be sent from England. Sixteen days after this order was received, and before the requisite preparations could be made, the English squadron, under Admiral Walker, reached Boston. Every possible exertion was made, and, in five weeks, two considerable armies were raised in the colonies. On the 30th of July, Admiral Walker, with his own troops, and two regiments of provincials, their whole force amounting to 7000, sailed from Boston, and proceeded to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, where they met with contrary winds and thick fogs, and the English pilots being unwilling to receive the counsel of the American seamen, the vessels were driven among the rocks, and eight or nine of the transports, with one thousand men, were lost. Among them, however, was not one American.

1711.
Great prepara-
tions made for
the conquest of
Canada.

Misfortune of
the fleet.

The admiral then bore away for Spanish River Bay in Cape Breton, where, in a council of officers, it was judged inexpedient to proceed

with the enterprise. The fleet returned to England, and the provincials to Boston.

Meanwhile, the forces of Connecticut, New-York, and New Jersey, had assembled at Albany, whither Col. Nicholson had repaired, to take the command, with orders to penetrate into Canada, by lake Champlain. He marched towards lake George with 4000 troops, including a body of Mohawks; but halting at Wood Creek, he received intelligence of the disaster of the fleet, and returned to Albany. Thus, to the great mortification of the colonists, failed an attempt to conquer Canada, on which they had placed the most confident reliance of success.

Land forces return, and the enterprise fails.

SECTION III.

1712. IN 1712, the Tuscaroras, and other Indians of North Carolina, formed, with all the cruel subtlety of the savage character, a plot for exterminating the entire white population. Having kept their design profoundly secret, until the night fixed for its execution had arrived, they entered the houses of the settlers on the Roanoke, most of whom were the poor Palatines, who had recently settled in the country, and murdered a great number of their men, women, and children. A few who escaped, gave the alarm, and the remaining inhabitants, collecting in one place, were guarded night and day, until aid could be received from South Carolina. Six hundred militia, and three hundred and sixty-six Indians, under Capt. Barnwell, were immediately sent from this colony to their relief. Although a wilderness at this time separated the northern from the southern settlements of Carolina, yet Capt. Barnwell penetrated it, attacked the Indians, killed three hundred, and took one hundred prisoners. Those who survived, fled to the chief town of the Tuscaroras, where they had erected a wooden breastwork for their security; but here Capt. Barnwell having surrounded them, they at last sued for peace. The Tuscaroras had lost 1000 men in the course of this war, and soon after, they left their country, and united with the Iroquois. It was in order to defray the expenses of this expedition, that South Carolina first resorted to the expedient of a bank.

Tuscaroras unite with the Iroquois.
South Carolina establishes a bank.

1713.
Treaty of Utrecht closes Queen Anne's war.

After the return of Nicholson, the governor of Canada, being relieved from the fears of an invasion, sent out parties in various directions; but no event of importance occurred during the war, which was ended in Europe by the treaty of Utrecht.

This war, commonly called "Queen Anne's war," which had for ten years exposed the frontiers to continued attacks from a savage foe, was a great check to the prosperity of New England, and effectually prevented the progress of settlements to the north and east. The inhabitants had been constantly harassed with calls for military service, and were also obliged to watch day and night, lest they should be surprised and murdered, or, what seemed more to be dreaded, doomed to savage captivity. Agriculture was consequently neglected, a heavy public debt incurred, and a state of general depression experienced. The frontiers of New-York, from being protected by the Five Nations, had suffered little molestation. A lucrative trade was carried on with these Indians; and the Dutch traders at Albany and Schenectady, sometimes permitted the Indians of Canada to pass through the northern parts of the province, in their attacks on the frontiers of New England, that they might enjoy the benefit of their plunder. Col. Schuyler, however, frequently obtained knowledge of their designs, and generously notified the people of Massachusetts of the places marked for destruction.

Effects of this war.

Massachusetts, to defray the expenses of the late war, had made such large emissions of paper money, that gold and silver were banished from the province. The paper depreciated, and the usual commercial evils ensued. The attention of the colony was directed to remedy these, and three parties were formed—"the first," says Marshall, "a very small one, actuated by the principle which ought always to govern—that honesty is the best policy, were in favour of calling in the paper money, and relying on the industry of the people to replace it with a circulating medium of greater stability." The second, which was numerous, were in favour of a private bank; the bills not redeemable in specie, but landed security to be given. The third party were for a public bank, the faith of the government to be pledged for the value of the notes, and the profits accruing from the bank, to be applied for its support. This party prevailed; and fifty thousand pounds, in bills of credit, were issued.

Means proposed in Mass. in consequence of the depreciation of paper currency.

In 1714 Queen Anne died, and George I. of the House of Brunswick, ascended the throne of England. In 1715, the Yamassees, who resided northeast of the Savannah river, secretly instigated a combination of all the Indians, from Florida to Cape Fear, against South Carolina. The Creeks, Appalachians, Cherokees, Catawbias, and Congarees, engaged in the enterprise, and it was computed that their whole force exceeded six thousand fighting men. The southern tribes fell suddenly on the traders, settled among them, and advancing against the plantations, in the vicinity of Port Royal, in a few hours, ninety persons were massa-

1715

Indian war in South Carolina.

cred. Some of the inhabitants fled precipitately to Charleston, and gave the alarm. At the same time that these tribes were thus invading the southern frontier, formidable parties were penetrating the northern parts, and approaching Charleston. They were repulsed by the militia, but their route was marked by desolation and murder. Gov. Craven immediately adopted the most energetic and judicious measures. Though he could muster no more than 1200 men, yet, placing himself at their head, he marched towards the southern frontier, against the strongest body of the enemy, and cautiously advanced, till he arrived at a place called Salt Catchers, where they had pitched their great camp; and here an obstinate and bloody battle was fought. The Indians were totally defeated, and the governor, pressing upon them, drove them from their territory, and pursued them over the Savannah;

The Yamassees
settle in Florida.

where they were hospitably received by the Spaniards, of Florida. Here they remained, and, long afterwards, made incursions into Carolina. Nearly 400 of the Carolinians were slain in this war.

1716.

Gov't. of Mary-
land restored to
Lord Baltimore.

In the year 1716, the government of Maryland, which, since the revolution in England, had been held by the crown, was restored to Charles, (Lord Baltimore,) the proprietor; and continued in his hands, and those of his successors, until the American revolution.

1717.

New Orleans
laid out.

New Orleans, in Louisiana, was laid out, by the French, in the spring of 1717, and named in honour of the duke of Orleans, then regent of France, during the minority of Louis XV.

1719.

Londonderry
settled.

In 1719, more than one hundred families, emigrated from the north of Ireland, and settled in the town of Londonderry, in New Hampshire. They introduced the foot spinning-wheel, the manufacture of linen, and the culture of potatoes.

A phenomenon, singular at the time, and not yet satisfactorily explained, alarmed the people of New England, in 1719. This was the *Aurora Borealis*, first noticed in the country on the night of the 17th of December. Its appearance, according to the writers of the day, was more calculated to excite terror, than later appearances of the same kind.*

1719.

Schuyler made
governor of N.Y.

In 1719, Peter Schuyler, so often mentioned, as the mediator between the whites and Indians, succeeded Gov. Hunter, in the government of New-York; he being the oldest member of the council. Commissioners were, at this time, appointed to draw the line of partition between the provinces of New-York, New Jersey, and Connecticut.

* See Appendix I.

In 1723, a fort was built on Connecticut river, in the present town of Brattleborough, under the direction of lieutenant governor Dummer, of Massachusetts, and hence it was called Fort Dummer. Around this fort, was commenced the first settlement in Vermont.

1723.

First settlement in Vermont.

The war of the Yamassees had increased the dissensions in Carolina. During this invasion, the legislature had applied to the proprietors for aid and protection, which was denied. For temporary relief, large emissions of paper money were resorted to; but directions were given by the proprietors to the governor, to reduce the quantity in circulation; and when the assembly resolved to appropriate the lands, from which the Indians had been driven, to such of his majesty's subjects as would settle on them, the proprietors refused to sanction the proceedings of the assembly. A memorial was presented against their chief justice, Trott, and receiver general Rhett, who had become extremely obnoxious to the colony, and a request made that they might be removed from office. They were, however, not only retained, but thanked for their services. At length, a general combination was formed throughout the colony, to subvert the proprietary government, and the inhabitants bound themselves to stand by each other, in defence of their lives

1719.

Carolinians revolt against the proprietary government.

and liberty. This was done with such secrecy and despatch, that, before the governor was informed of it, almost every inhabitant of the province was engaged in the combination. A letter was then despatched to the governor, from a committee of the representatives of the people, informing him, that they were to wait on him, for the purpose of offering him the government of the province, under the king—as they were resolved no longer to submit to that of the proprietors. Mr. Johnson, the governor, refused, and endeavoured to suppress the spirit of revolt; but it had diffused itself beyond his control: and at last they elected Moore governor of the province, and, in the name of the king, he administered the affairs of government.

1720.

Royal gov't. established, and colony flourishes

The people stated their situation to the crown, when it was decided, that the proprietors had forfeited their charter; and that both colonies should be taken under its protection. Nicholson was, in 1720, appointed provincial governor, and early the following year, he arrived in Carolina, where he was received with every demonstration of joy. Peace having been published between Great Britain and Spain, he had been instructed to cultivate the friendship of the Indians, and the Spaniards of Florida. He, accordingly, held treaties with the Cherokees and Creeks, in which the boundaries of their lands were fixed, and such other regulations made, as were calculated to promote harmony. Having thus secured the province from assaults without, Gov. Nicholson, by the

encouragement and support which he gave to literary and religious institutions, soon caused its internal affairs to assume a new aspect.

1729. An entire revolution was completed, in 1729, by an agreement between the crown and seven of the proprietors, whereby, for a valuable consideration, they surrendered to the crown their right and interest, not only in the government of these provinces, but also in the soil. North and South Carolina were at the same time erected into separate governments.

N. and S. Carolina separated.

SECTION IV.

MEANWHILE, the impolicy of England, in endeavouring to impose upon Massachusetts a more despotic government, than the independent spirit of her citizens would bear, began to be manifest, in disputes between the representatives and the royal governors, whose situations they sometimes made exceedingly unpleasant. The public bank, which had been established, failed of its desired effect. Disputes with the governors of Massachusetts. Gov. Shute had succeeded Gov. Dudley, in 1716, and by his recommendation, another emission of bills of credit was made, to the amount of one hundred thousand pounds. The consequence of this was, rather to heighten than allay the existing difficulties; as it was found, that the greater the quantity of this factitious substitute for money, the less was its value. The commercial evils of the times, being, by the people, ascribed to the operation of the public bank, its friends, among whom was the governor, were of course unpopular; and those who had favoured a private bank, at the head of whom was a Mr. Cooke, became the dominant party. A majority of the general court were also of this party; and they refused to raise the salary of the governor, notwithstanding the depreciation of the currency. They also elected Mr. Cooke their speaker; but the governor objected, alledging that he had a right to negative their choice. The house denied this right, persisted in their choice, and were, by the governor, dissolved. The irritated people, in almost every instance, chose the same representatives, and when the next session commenced, much ill temper was shown on their part. Among other proceedings, justly displeasing to the governor, was the omission of the customary vote, at the commencement of the session, for the payment of half his yearly salary; and when the tardy appropriation was made, it was reduced from six to five hundred pounds.

At the next meeting, the governor informed the court, that he had received instructions from the crown, to recommend the establishment for the chief magistrate, of a fixed and adequate salary. This subject, thus again introduced, and insisted on, caused the most violent disputes that had yet occurred between any of the colonies, and the mother country. The government of England was bent on obliging the colonies to pay a fixed salary, while the people were equally pertinacious in their refusal; and, in the course of their opposition, they repeatedly asserted the principle, to maintain which, they eventually took up arms against the parent country; that none but themselves, or the representatives of their election, had a right to control their funds.

A fixed salary is again demanded but refused.

Gov. Shute, wearied with contention, left the province, in 1726, went privately to England, and preferred complaints against Massachusetts, in consequence of which, two clauses, additional to her charter, were sent out, and, at length, reluctantly accepted, from the fear of otherwise experiencing something worse; the one affirming the right of the governor to negative the choice of speaker; and the other, denying to the house of representatives, the right of adjourning itself, for any period, longer than two days.

1726.

Two clauses annexed to the charter of Massachusetts.

During these contests in the interior, the frontiers had suffered severely from the depredations of the Indians. Father Ralle, a French missionary, resided among them; and like Castine, exerted successfully much skill to excite their jealousies against the English. By the acts of Ralle, and other missionaries, all the eastern Indians, as well as those of Canada, were combined against New England.

1724.

Indians instigated to hostilities by Father Ralle.

They made some incursions into Massachusetts, in consequence of which, a body of troops were sent to the village where Ralle resided, for the purpose of seizing his person. He received intimation of their design, in time to make his escape. This attempt on the person of their spiritual father, was revenged by the eastern Indians, in an attack on the frontier settlements of New Hampshire and Massachusetts. War was openly declared against them, and carried on with considerable loss on both sides. At length, commissioners were appointed to remonstrate with Vaudreuil, the governor of Canada, (under whose authority it was ascertained Ralle acted,) against conduct so incompatible with the state of peace between France and England; and, at last, succeeded in obtaining his influence to quiet the Indians. Massachusetts and New Hampshire were the only colonies which suffered any annoyance in the Jesuit's, or Ralle's war.

In 1720, Mr. Burnet succeeded Peter Schuyler in the government of New-York. The French had, at this

1720-1728.

Burnet governor of New-York,

opposes the designs of the French.

period formed considerable settlements in Louisiana, and manifested a design which they afterward endeavoured more fully to accomplish, of connecting, by a chain of forts, their possessions in Canada with those in Louisiana, and thus confining the English colonies within narrow limits on the sea coast.* They had also monopolized the fur trade with the western Indians, which Burnet was aware would be very advantageous to Great Britain. He proposed to the assembly of the province, to adopt measures to stop the trade between New-York and Canada, as the channel by which the French supplied themselves with the most valuable commodities for the Indian market. An act was accordingly passed, prohibiting trade with Canada, and encouraging the inhabitants of the province to traffic directly with the Indians. To effect this purpose, as well as to stop the progress of the French settlements, a trading house and fort were erected at Oswego, and other judicious measures adopted, the good effects of which were sensibly felt in the province. The merchants, however, who imported foreign goods, complained of the cessation of trade with Canada, and at last Burnet became so unpopular with them, that, though generally acceptable to the people, he was superseded in

Burnet is succeeded by Montgomery; and he, by Van Dam.

the government by Col. Montgomery. On his death, the command devolved on Rip Van Dam, he being the oldest member of the council, and an eminent merchant. He passively permitted the encroachments of the French, and during his administration, they erected a fort at Crown Point, which commanded lake Champlain, and which was within the acknowledged limits of New-York. George I. died in 1727. During his reign, England had enjoyed the blessings of peace. He was succeeded by George II.

1728.

Burnet governor of Mass. and New Hampshire.

In 1728, Mr. Burnet, who had been removed from the magistracy of New-York, was appointed to that of Massachusetts and New Hampshire. He was instructed by his sovereign to insist on a fixed salary. The general court were no longer, as in the administration of Shute, violent and provoking in their measures, but resisted with calmness and caution, what they deemed an infringement of their rights. In regard to the question of the salary, they endeavoured to evade, and postpone a decisive

* "New France, (as the French now claim,) extends from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to the mouth of the river Mississippi; by which the French plainly show their intention of enclosing the British settlements, and cutting us off from all commerce with the numerous nations of Indians, that are every where settled over the vast continent of North America. The English in America have good reason to apprehend such a design, when they see the French king's geographer publish a map, by which he has set bounds to the British empire in America, and has taken in many of the English settlements, both in South Carolina and New-York, within the boudaries of New France."—*Colden's History of the Five Nations.*

answer. They voted Gov. Burnet the unusual sum of £1,700; three hundred for his travelling expenses, and fourteen hundred for his salary. He accepted the appropriation for his expenses, but rejected that for his salary. The people of Boston took a lively interest in the dispute, and the governor, believing that the general court were thus unduly influenced, removed them to Salem. Continuing firm to their purpose, he kept the court in session several months beyond the usual time, and refused to sign a warrant on the treasurer, for the payment of its members.

Dispute with regard to fixed salary.

In April, 1729, after a recess of about three months, the general court again convened at Salem, and still proving refractory on the subject of the salary, the governor adjourned them, and they met at Cambridge, in August. Still unable to make any impression on these determined vindicators of their rights, the amiable Gov. Burnet sickened with a fever, and died on the 17th September.

1729.
Burnet dies.

His successor, Mr. Belcher, who arrived at Boston in August, 1730, renewed the controversy; but the court, after two or three sessions succeeded with him, (and by consent of the crown,) in a policy, which they had vainly attempted with Burnet; that of paying him a liberal sum for present use, without binding themselves for the future.

Controversy renewed with Gov. Belcher, and settled.

About this period, a new colony was projected in England. The country, between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, although within the limits of the Carolina grant, was still unoccupied by European settlers. The patriotic deemed it important that this region should be planted by a British colony, otherwise, it was feared, it would be seized by the Spaniards from Florida, or the French from the Mississippi. At the same time, a spirit of philanthropy was abroad in England, to notice the distresses of the poor, especially those shut up in prisons, and provide for their relief. Actuated by these generous considerations, a number of gentlemen in England, of whom James Oglethorpe was the most zealous, formed a project to settle this tract by such of the suffering poor, as might be willing to seek, in the new world, the means of subsistence. To this company, the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha, now, in honour of the king, denominated Georgia, was granted; and a corporation, consisting of twenty-one persons, was created under the name of "Trustees for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia." Large sums of money were subscribed, which were applied towards arming, clothing, transporting, and furnishing, with food and utensils for cultivation, such poor people as should be willing to cross the Atlantic, and begin the new settlement. In November, 1732, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked for America, under Oglethorpe.

1732.
Georgia granted to a company in England.

1733. They arrived at Charleston, January 15th, 1733. Gov. Johnson, sensible of the importance of having a barrier between his people and the southern Indians, gave them all the aid in his power, and accompanied them to the place of their destination, which was Yamacraw Bluff, since called Savannah, which they reached on the first of February. Here Oglethorpe immediately commenced the construction of a fort, which being completed, and its guns mounted, his next care was to propitiate the Indians. The tribe settled at Yamacraw was considerable. The Creeks, at this period, could muster 2,500 warriors; the Cherokees, 6,000; the Choctaws, 5,000; and the Chickasaws, 700; amounting in the whole to 14,200. Aware, that without the friendship of these nations, his colony could not even exist, much less prosper, Oglethorpe summoned a general meeting of the chiefs, fifty of whom appeared, and held a congress with him at Savannah. By means of an interpreter, Oglethorpe made to them the most friendly professions, which they reciprocated; and by mutual presents and speeches, these amicable dispositions were considered as having passed into a solemn treaty.

The thirteen veteran colonies, which fought the war of the revolution, and whose emblematic stars and stripes still decorate the banner of American Independence, were now all settled; and the period of the settlement of Georgia is remarkable, as that province was the last settled of those which subsequently constituted the Old Thirteen United States.

Geographical notices of the country at the Fifth Epoch, or in 1733, the date of the Fifth Map.

The colony of Massachusetts now contained nine counties, Plymouth, Barnstable, Bristol, Hampshire, Worcester, Essex, Sussex, Middlesex, and Norfolk. Connecticut had now about fifty towns settled. The settlements in Rhode Island and New Hampshire, had extended. Londonderry, in New Hampshire was settled about this time by Irish emigrants, who introduced the foot spinning-wheel, and the culture of potatoes. Virginia contained twenty-five counties. The colonies of North and South Carolina were flourishing; and a new settlement was commenced in Georgia. The settlement of Natchez and New Orleans, was commenced at this period; but little is known respecting them.

Population.

Massachusetts,	120,000.
Connecticut,	30,000.
Rhode Island,	17,900.
New Hampshire,	10,000.
New-York,	65,000.
Pennsylvania, above	30,000.
Maryland, nearly	36,000.
Virginia,	60,000.
North Carolina,	6,000.
South Carolina,	12,000.
New Jersey,	15,000.

Revenue and Exports.—Hemp and provisions were the principal articles of exportation from the New England states. Iron and copper ore, beeswax, hemp, raw silk, and tobacco, from Virginia. Rice, deer-skins, furs, naval stores, and provisions, from Carolina.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The commerce of New England had greatly increased. The trade of Massachusetts alone employed 600 vessels, and its fisheries from 5 to 6000 men. The manufacture of wool and iron was carried to considerable extent. Pennsylvania carried on a trade with England, Spain, and Portugal; with the Canaries, Madeiras, Azores, and West India islands. The commerce of Charleston was considerable; two hundred ships sailed from this port this year.

Principal Towns.—Boston, Salem, Providence, Newport, Hartford, and New Haven, in New England; New-York and Albany, in New-York; Newcastle, in Delaware; and Newark, in New Jersey. Philadelphia, in Pennsylvania; Annapolis, in Maryland; Jamestown and Williamsburg, in Virginia; and Charleston, in South Carolina.

Colleges.—Harvard University, at Cambridge; William and Mary's College, at Williamsburg; and Yale College, at New Haven.

Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period, extending from 1692 to 1733.

	Year in which they died.
SIR WILLIAM PHIPPS, governor of Massachusetts.	1695.
SIMEON BRADSTREET, governor of Massachusetts.	1697.
LOUIS FRONTENAC, governor general of Canada.	1698

1704 WILLIAM HUBBARD, author of Indian Wars, and History of Massachusetts.

1707. SAMUEL WILLARD, vice president of Harvard College, and a celebrated divine ; author of a work entitled " A Body of Divinity."

FITZ JOHN WINTHROP, governor of Connecticut.

Unknown LORD CORNBURY, governor of New-York.

1714. EDMUND ANDROSS, governor of New England.

1718. BENJAMIN CHURCH, distinguished by his exploits in the Indian wars of New England.

WILLIAM PENN, founder of Pennsylvania.

1720. SIR JOSEPH DUDLEY, governor of Massachusetts.

1721 ELIHU YALE, a distinguished benefactor of Yale College.

1723. INCREASE MATHER, D. D. president of Harvard College ; author of a " History of the war with the Indians," " The doctrine of Divine Providence," &c.

1728. COTTON MATHER, D. D., F. R. S. an eminent divine ; author of " Essays to do Good," " Magnalia Christi Americana," &c.

FRANCIS NICHOLSON, distinguished in " Queen Anne's war," and governor of Carolina.

1729. JOHN WILLIAMS, first minister of Deerfield, Mass.

SOLOMON STODDARD, an eminent divine ; author of several theological works.

WILLIAM BURNET, governor of New-York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire.

1731 THOMAS HOLLIS, founder of two professorships in Cambridge University, Mass.

PART VI.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

First settlement } **FIFTH EPOCH, 1733,** { of Georgia, &c

TO THE

The close of the French } **SIXTH EPOCH, 1763.** { Albany. Taking Quebec
war; nine years after the } and death of Wolfe, most
meeting of a Congress at } important closing event.



SECTION I.

GEORGIA, soon after its settlement, was increased by five or six hundred emigrants ; but most of them were poor and idle, and many of them were vicious. In order to induce a more efficient population to settle in Carolina and Georgia, eleven townships, of 20,000 acres each, were laid out on the Savannah, Altamaha, Santee, and other rivers, and divided into lots of 50 acres each, one of which was given to every person who would make a settlement. In consequence of this regulation, a large number of emigrants arrived from Scotland, Germany, and Switzerland. The Highlanders from Scotland, built the town of Inverness, on the Altamaha ; and the Germans, a town, which they called Ebenezer ; on the Savannah.

1636.
Scotch, Ger-
mans, and Swiss
emigrate to Geor-
gia.

The charter granted to the trustees of Georgia, vested in them powers of legislation for twenty-one years, and they proceeded to establish regulations for the government of the province ; but those which they made proved injudicious, and, notwithstanding their utmost exertions, the colony did not flourish. In 1736, Oglethorpe engaged with activity in the business of constructing fortifications. He erected a fort on the Savannah, at Augusta ; another on the island of St. Simon's, at the mouth of the

1734.
Trustees make
regulations for
the colony.

Oglethorpe
erects forts.

Altamaha, where the town of Frederica was commenced; and a third, on Cumberland island, commanding the entrance through which ships must pass to Frederica. The Spaniards immediately remonstrated against the erection of these fortifications, and insisted on the evacuation of the country as far as the thirty-third degree of north latitude. Oglethorpe, about this time, returned to England.

1736.

Expedition of the
French against
the Chickasaws.

The communication between Canada and Louisiana had been for some time cut off by the Chickasaw Indians, who opposed the progress of the French up the Mississippi. A force from New Orleans agreed to act in concert with a large party from Canada, in order to extirpate them. The detachment from New Orleans did not arrive seasonably. The Canadians, however, proceeded to the Chickasaw towns; but the Indians, being prepared for them, killed about sixty, took the rest prisoners, tied them to the stake, and tortured and burnt them to death. Another expedition was made, four years after, against the Chickasaws, with so large an army from Canada and New Orleans, that the Indians thought proper to sue for peace, which was granted; and has been preserved till this time.

In 1736, John Wesley, a celebrated methodist, visited Georgia; and two years after, George Whitfield, another distinguished preacher, arrived in the colony.*

1738.

Preparations for
war between
England and
Spain.

England and Spain, being each unwilling to relinquish their right to the country which both claimed, there was now a prospect of open war between them. Oglethorpe was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in Carolina and Georgia, and sent from England with a regiment of 600 men. On his arrival in America, he established his head quarters at Frederica. The Spaniards had strengthened East Florida, and, during his absence, had attempted to seduce from his interest, some of his Indian allies. They were unsuccessful in their intrigues

Insurrection of
the blacks in Ca-
rolina.

here; but, by promises of liberty and protection, they lured many of the slaves of Carolina to run away from their masters, and set up the standard of insurrection. A large number of blacks assembled at Stono; forced a warehouse, and supplied themselves with arms and ammunition; chose a captain, and then marched through the country in a southwesterly direction, murdering every white person whom they encountered, and com-

* "He came to Georgia to establish an orphan house, for the care and religious education of the children of the poor. For this benevolent purpose he crossed the Atlantic, and traversed Great Britain and America, soliciting aid from the pious and charitable. Wherever he went, he preached, making many proselytes; and founding a sect who are highly respectable, and very numerous. His orphan house, during his life, did not flourish; and after his death, was entirely abandoned."

PELLING the negroes to join their party. They had desolated the country for twelve miles, and had become formidable in numbers, when the news of their progress reached a congregation assembled for divine worship. The men, being armed, as directed by law, immediately marched against them. Finding them halting in an open field, exulting in their short-lived success, and intoxicated with ardent spirits, their pursuers at once attacked them, and killed most of their number. Such of the leaders as survived were tried and executed, and thus the insurrection was suppressed.

In 1738, New Jersey, on application to the king, was allowed a charter separate from New-York. These provinces had been ruled, for several years, by the same governor; though each chose a separate assembly. In the same year, a college, called Nassau Hall, was founded at Princeton.

1738.

New Jersey obtains a charter, and a college is founded.

In 1739, England declared war against Spain. Oglethorpe, who continued to command in Georgia and Carolina, fixed upon the mouth of St. John's river as a place of general rendezvous for the troops. In May, the following year, he invaded Florida, and invested Diego, a small fort, about twenty-five miles from St. Augustine. After a short resistance, it capitulated, and Oglethorpe returned to the place of rendezvous. A few days after, with 2000

1739.

War declared by England against Spain.

men, he marched to Fort Moosa, about two miles from St. Augustine. The Spaniards, on his approach, evacuated the fort, and retired to the town. Oglethorpe then blockaded St. Augustine. A small detachment of troops, which he left at Fort Moosa, were cut off by a party from the Spanish garrison. The Spaniards had received large supplies of men and provisions. The troops from Carolina, dispirited by fruitless efforts to force the town, had deserted the camp. Oglethorpe, seeing these discouragements, his regiment being also enfeebled by sickness, and the heat of the climate, reluctantly abandoned the enterprise, and returned to Frederica. The failure of this expedition, from which the colonists had anticipated the total expulsion of the Spaniards from Florida, occasioned a mutual and injurious want of confidence between them and their general, and also greatly increased the public debt of Carolina. The same year, Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, was destroyed by fire, and its inhabitants sustained an immense loss of property. To relieve the sufferers, the British parliament generously voted £20,000.

1740.

Oglethorpe invades Florida, and makes an attempt on St. Augustine.

Charleston burned.

The Spaniards were still determined to drive the English from their positions in Georgia, and for this purpose, in May, 1742, a fleet was sent from Havana to St. Augustine. Notice of this event being given to Oglethorpe,

1742.

Spaniards invade Georgia.

he hastily collected a small army for defence, and established his head quarters at Frederica. About the end of June, the Spanish fleet came to anchor off St. Simon's bar. Oglethorpe was now at fort Simon's, but the fleet passed, proceeded up the Altamaha, landed the troops beyond the reach of the guns of the fort, and erected a battery. Oglethorpe retired to Frederica, but was not in sufficient strength to attack the enemy. On being informed, however, of a division in the Spanish camp, he marched at night with the flower of his army, in order to attack them, when thus divided. He halted within two miles of the Spanish army, and with a select corps, was reconnoitering their situation, when a French soldier of his party discharged his musket and ran into their lines. Discovery defeated every hope of success; and the general immediately retreated to Frederica. He was justly apprehensive that the deserter would disclose his weakness, and thereby increase his danger. In this state of embarrassment, he devised an expedient, by which he turned this seeming disaster to his own advantage. With a view to make the Spaniards believe that the deserter was a spy, and was giving them information to mislead them, he wrote him a letter, urging him to give the Spaniards such an account of the situation of his army as should induce them to attack him, or would, at any rate, serve to detain them in their own camp, until the succours which he expected should arrive. This letter, as Oglethorpe had expected, fell into the hands of the Spaniards; who, having loaded the deserter with irons, were deliberating upon its contents, when they perceived off the coast some ships of war, which South Carolina had, without Oglethorpe's knowledge, sent with supplies for Georgia. Panic-

They retire with
loss.

struck, they embarked, and left the coast in such haste that their artillery, provisions, and military stores, fell into the hands of the Georgians.

1752.

Georgia becomes
a royal province.

In 1752, Georgia became a royal province. The distressed and languishing state of the settlement was, by repeated complaints, represented to the trustees; who, weary of their irksome and thankless charge, at length surrendered their charter to the king.

SECTION II

1744.

War between
England and
France.

As France and Spain were at this time governed by different branches of the House of Bourbon, it was not expected that the former nation would long continue at peace, while the latter was at war with Great Britain.

In 1744, war was proclaimed between England and France, and before

the intelligence reached the northern colonies, the French at Cape Breton had surprised and taken Canseau from the English.

Louisbourg, the capital of the island of Cape Breton, was, from its strength, called the Dunkirk of America. Its position was important, as it secured to the nation who held it, the fisheries of the adjoining seas, and afforded a safe retreat for ships passing between Europe and the West Indies ; and it had now become a place of great strength, as the French had been for more than twenty-five years adding to its fortifications.

Importance of
Louisbergrg.

On this important fortress, Gov. Shirley* of Massachusetts now meditated an attack. He first applied to the British ministry for naval assistance ; but without waiting for returns, he laid open his designs to the general court of the colony, having previously required of the members an oath of secrecy. The plan being thought too great, too hazardous, and too expensive, it was apparently abandoned ; but the people at large becoming acquainted with the design,† petitions were circulated and signed by great numbers, praying that it might be reconsidered by the general court. After a long deliberation, the vote in favour of the enterprise was carried by a single voice.

Shirley plans an
attack on Louis-
bourg, which is
opposed, then
sanctioned by
the court of
Mass.

Troops were immediately raised by Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire, to aid Massachusetts in the enterprise. The command of these forces, which amounted to 4,000, was given to Col. William Pepperell, who sailed on the 25th of March, and arrived at Canseau on the 4th of April.

1745.

Forces assemble
at Canseau.

The day before leaving Boston, an express-boat, which had been sent to the West Indies to solicit the assistance of Commodore Warren, returned with the intelligence that he had declined to furnish the aid required ; but the commodore soon after received orders from England, and, in April, he joined the colonial army at Canseau.

The whole fleet soon sailed, and arrived at Chapeaurouge bay, on the 30th of April. The appearance of this armament brought to the French the first intelligence of the meditated attack. The English troops landed, and Col. Vaughn, conducting the first detachment through the woods, set fire to a number of warehouses, containing spirituous liquors. The smoke being driven by the wind into the principal battery of the French, they immediately abandoned it, and fled to the town. The English took possession of the deserted battery, which

* Mr. Vaughn, son of Gov. Vaughn of New Hampshire, is said to have been the original instigator of this expedition.

† “ It is said that the secret was kept until an honest member, who performed the family devotions at his lodgings, inadvertently discovered it by praying for the Divine Blessing on the attempt.”

They besiege
Louisbourg.

commanded the town, and began the siege. For fourteen nights successively did these hardy veterans perform a drudgery, which would have been impossible for oxen, drawing the cannon requisite for carrying on the siege, from the landing place, two miles through a deep morass. On the 7th of May, the provincials summoned the governor of Louisbourg to surrender the town; but he refused; and they continued to press the siege with such vigour, both by sea and land, that he soon found himself in no condition for defence. Commodore Warren had now succeeded in capturing from the French, the *Vigilant*, a large ship, having on board 560 men, and stores for the garrison. Preparations were making for a general assault by sea and land; and a mutiny had occurred in the French garrison before the arrival of the English; which, giving to the soldiers a disposition to desert, rendered a sortie from the fort impracticable. In view of these discouraging circumstances, the governor,

Louisbourg surrenders.

on the forty-ninth day of the siege, surrendered Louisbourg, and the island of Cape Breton, to the provincial troops, for his Britannic Majesty. Thus was successfully terminated this hazardous and important expedition.

The success of this project encouraged Gov. Shirley to proceed in the prosecution of another plan, which he had previously formed, of raising troops both in the colonies and in England, to reduce the French power in America; but the deliberations of the colonies were soon

1746. directed to measures of self-defence. The French, exasperated at the loss of Louisbourg, resolved on revenge; and sent a powerful armament, under D'Anville, with orders to ravage the whole coast of North America. French send a fleet to destroy the colonies.

Tempest, disease, and other disasters attended this force, and the fleet returned to France, without having effected any other object than that of alarming the colonies.

1748. Peace was proclaimed in 1748, and a treaty signed at Aix la Chapelle, by commissioners from England, France, and Spain, the basis of which was the mutual restoration of all places taken during the war: of course, Louisbourg and the English conquests in that vicinity, reverted to the French.

Peace of Aix la Chapelle.

SECTION III.

THE peace of Aix la Chapelle can hardly be considered as any thing more than a truce. France, seeing her plan of universal monarchy frustrated in Europe, transferred the project to America, and now be-

gan more fully to accomplish the design, which she had before manifested, of extending a line of forts quite through the interior of the country which she claimed, in order to connect her distant possessions in Canada and Louisiana. The successful execution of such a project would probably, in the event, have made the whole of North America an appendage to France. The French likewise made continual encroachments upon Nova Scotia; and, notwithstanding it had, by the treaty, been ceded to the English, they continued to contest the possession of the country.

French make encroachments.

About this period, was formed the Ohio company; and in 1650, by an act of the British parliament, they obtained six hundred thousand acres, about the Ohio river. This act alarmed the French, who considered it as an encroachment on their territory; and they probably

1750.

Grant made to the Ohio company, which offends the French.

hastened, on this account, the execution of their designs. The Ohio company immediately caused their lands to be surveyed, and opened a trade with the Indians in their vicinity. Their proceedings becoming known to the French, the governor of Canada wrote to the governors of New-York and Pennsylvania, threatening the seizure of their traders, if they did not desist from their encroachments on the French territories. Not regarding this menace, a number of English traders were seized, and carried to the fort, at Presque Isle.

The contested lands had now become of too much importance to be unhesitatingly relinquished by either party. The French opened a communication by two forts, from Presque Isle to the Ohio. The Ohio company complained to Dinwiddie, the governor of Virginia, of these encroachments on lands which were granted to them by their charter. And here we first introduce to the reader of American history, its brightest ornament, GEORGE WASHINGTON. At this period, he was twenty-two years of age, and already a major in the militia of Virginia, his native state. At the solicitation of the governor, he engaged with alacrity in the hazardous enterprise of a journey through a savage and unexplored region, to carry to the French commandant, a letter from Dinwiddie, requiring him to quit the British territories. Maj. Washington commenced his journey from Williamsburgh, and on the 14th of November, reached Will's Creek, the extreme frontier settlement of

1753.

Washington sent from Virginia with a letter to the French commandant.

the English, where he procured guides to cross the Alleghany mountains. Pursuing his route to Turtle Creek, and along the Alleghany, he found the first French fort at the mouth of French Creek. Proceeding up this creek to another fort, within fifteen miles of Presque Isle, he delivered to St. Pierre, the commander, the letter of Dinwiddie, and having received one in reply, he returned to Virginia. The answer of St. Pierre manifested no disposition to withdraw from the country; and

the British, without waiting for a formal declaration of war, immediately took measures to maintain the right which they asserted over it.

1754.

He is again sent with a force to maintain the English claims.

A regiment was raised in Virginia ; and Washington, who had surveyed the country, which was to be the seat of war, with a military eye, was promoted to its command.

In April, 1754, he marched into the disputed territory, and, encamping at the Great Meadows, he learned that the French had dispossessed the Virginians of a fort, which they were erecting for the Ohio company, on the southern branch of the Ohio river, and had themselves commenced the construction of a fort, which they called Fort Du Quesne, at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany. He was also informed that a detachment of French troops had been sent against the English, and were encamped but a few miles west of the Great Meadows. Considering this as a hostile measure, Surprises and he took Indian guides, and surrounding their encamp- captures a ment, surprised, and completely defeated them. On his French force. return to Great Meadows, he was reinforced by troops from New-York and South Carolina, and erected there a small stockade, which was afterwards called Fort Necessity.

Marches to at-
tack Fort Du
Quesne, but re-
turns to Fort Ne-
cessity, and sur-
renders to a su-
perior force.

With less than 400 men, Washington now commenced a march, with the intention of dislodging the enemy from Fort Du Quesne ; but after proceeding thirteen miles, he received such intelligence of their situation and strength, that a council of officers was held, and by their unani-

mous advice, he relinquished the enterprise, and retired, to intrench his little army, within Fort Necessity. Scarcely had he completed his intrenchments, when a party of fifteen hundred French, under Monsieur de Villiers, began a furious assault on the fort, which was continued, with a brave resistance on the part of the Americans, from ten in the morning until dark. De Villiers then demanded a parley ; and Washington, deeming it folly longer to contend with such an unequal force, signed, in the course of the night, articles of capitulation, by which the fort was surrendered, and the garrison permitted to march from the fort with the honours of war, and return unmolested to their homes. As Washington was on his march to Virginia, he caused a fort to be commenced at Will's Creek, which, when completed, was called Fort Cumberland.

The British cabinet had perceived that war was inevitable. Accordingly, in their instructions to the colonies, in 1753, they directed them to cultivate the friendship of the Six Nations ; and recommended to them to form a union among themselves for their mutual protection and defence. The British government had, at an earlier period, formed a plan for the union of the colonies, but it had never before been for-

mally proposed. Agreeably to their instructions, a congress was held at Albany, June 14, 1754, to which delegates were sent from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New-York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. About one hundred and fifty Indians of the Six Nations were present, with whom the convention concluded an explanatory and pacific treaty; and then proceeded to consider the subject of the proposed union. Their situation, with regard to the French, called for the most immediate and effectual measures; and it was unanimously resolved, "that a union of the colonies was absolutely necessary for their preservation." Desiring that their counsels, treasure, and strength might be employed in due proportion against the common enemy, a committee, consisting of one member from each colony represented, was appointed to draw a plan of union. That which was drawn by Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, was substantially adopted,* and signed on the 4th of July, twenty-two years before this great statesman signed that more important instrument, which he also assisted in forming—the Declaration of Independence. The delegates from Connecticut alone refused their consent to this plan, and on the ground, that it gave too much power to the president general, who was to be appointed over the colonies, by the crown. It was presented to the colonial legislatures and the British parliament for their sanction; but it was rejected by both; by the colonies, because it gave too much power to the crown; and by the crown, because it gave too much power to the people: thus showing how widely different, even at this period, were the views of Great Britain and her colonies, respecting the rights of the latter; and foreboding the contest and separation which afterwards followed.

June.

A congress meets at Albany.

Plan of union proposed and drawn up.

It is rejected.

The ministry, having rejected this scheme of union, proposed to Gov. Shirley and others, that the governors of the colonies, (most of whom were appointed by the crown,) attended by one or more of their council, should meet, from time to time, to concert measures for the general defence of the colonies, with power to draw on the British treasury for such sums of money as they needed; which sums were, however, to be reimbursed by a tax imposed on the colonies by parliament. The colonies, early awake to their interest on the important subject of taxation, rejected this plan. As the only alternative, the crown then resolved to carry on the war with British troops, and such auxiliary forces as the colonial assemblies might voluntarily furnish; and to this the Americans cheerfully assented.

England proposes a system of taxation, which is rejected.

* See Appendix J.

SECTION IV.

1755.

Braddock ar-
rives with Eng-
lish troops.

THE establishment of a French post on the Ohio, and the defeat of Col. Washington, were considered by the British government, as the commencement of hostilities; and 1,500 troops, under the command of Gen. Braddock, were immediately despatched from England, for the defence of the colonies. On the arrival of this general in America, he requested a con-

Plan of cam-
paign.

vention of the colonial governors to assemble in Virginia, for the purpose of concerting a plan of military operations. Three expeditions were here resolved upon, in addition to one which had previously been planned in Massachusetts. General Braddock, with the British troops, and such forces as could be raised in Maryland and Virginia, was to attack Fort Du Quesne; Gov. Shirley was to lead the American regulars and Indians against the fort at Niagara; and the militia of the northern colonies were to be directed against Crown Point. The object of the fourth expedition was the reduc-

The French
claim a part of
Nova Scotia.

tion of Nova Scotia; whose boundaries were yet unsettled. The English claimed to the St. Lawrence, while the French, wishing to restrict them to the peninsula of Acadia, occupied the contested country, and had erected forts for its defence.

France made vigorous preparations for the support of her claims in America, and early in the spring, sent out a powerful fleet, carrying a large body of troops, under the Baron Dieskau, to reinforce the army in Canada. Admiral Boscawen was sent from England, to intercept this fleet, and sailing directly for Newfoundland, he reached that island a short time previous to its arrival; but on account of the thick fogs which prevailed on the coast, it escaped his notice, and arrived unmolested in Canada.

June.

English subdue
the French in
Nova Scotia.

Massachusetts very early despatched 3000 troops to Nova Scotia, under generals Monckton and Winslow. They sailed from Boston on the 20th of May; and arrived at Chignecto, on the Bay of Fundy, the first of June. Here they were joined by 300 British troops, and proceeded against Beau Sejour, the principal post of the French in that country. They invested and took possession of it, after a bombardment of five days. Monckton proceeded still farther, and reduced the fort on the river Gaspereau. The fleet appearing in the river St. Johns, the French set fire to their works, and evacuated the country. Thus, with the loss of only three men, the English found themselves again in possession of the whole of Nova Scotia.

The expeditions against Crown Point and Niagara were forwarded with great exertion and despatch, by the colonies of New England and New-York. The troops destined for the reduction of these places were ordered to rendezvous at Albany, where they arrived the last of June. Those destined for Crown Point, amounting to four or five thousand, were under the command of Gen. William Johnson, and Gen. Lyman. They were joined by a considerable body of Mohawks, under Hendrick, their chief sachem. Gen. Lyman advanced from Albany, with the main body of the army, and proceeded to the carrying place, on the Hudson, fourteen miles from lake George, and here erected a fort, (afterwards called Fort Edward,) for the security of the batteaux, provisions, artillery, and other necessaries, requisite for crossing the lake; which were forwarded from Albany by Gen. Johnson. The army were thus employed for six weeks before they were in readiness to advance to the lake.

Preparations for the expeditions against Crown Point and Niagara.

In the mean time, Gen. Braddock, who had in May taken the command of the American forces, was slowly making preparations for the expedition against Fort Du Quesne. He marched from Virginia on the 10th of June; but such were the delays occasioned by the difficulty of procuring horses, wagons, and provisions, that he judged it expedient to leave the heavy baggage behind, under the care of Col. Dunbar; and placing himself at the head of 1200 select troops, he proceeded by more rapid marches, towards Fort Du Quesne. Braddock was not deficient in courage, or military skill, but was wholly ignorant of the mode of conducting warfare in American woods and morasses. Yet he was so obstinate and positive in his disposition, that he treated the advice of the colonial officers with the greatest contempt. Washington, whom he had accepted as his aid-de-camp, ventured to advise him to send an advanced guard, or reconnoitering parties, to watch the movements of the Indians. Braddock, disregarding this salutary counsel, rashly pushed on until he was within ten miles of Fort Du Quesne. Here his officers again warned him of his danger, and advised him to proceed with caution. Washington entreated his permission to go forward with an advanced guard; but his proposal was haughtily declined. The army were now within seven miles of the fort. Marching through a narrow de- file, the Indian war-whoop burst upon them suddenly, and a deadly fire was poured from an unseen foe. The van was thrown into confusion, and fell back upon the main body. Braddock, bold, though not wise, formed and rallied his troops. But this only made them a surer mark for the ambushed enemy. The general should have ordered an instant retreat, or a rapid charge, regardless of any other rule than to discover and destroy the ambus-

Braddock leads an army against Fort Du Quesne.

July 9.

They fall into an ambuscade, and are defeated.

cade. But, a bigot to European rules of warfare, he constantly sought to preserve the regular order of battle. Thus, like sheep penned up in a sheep fold, were this band devoted to death by the folly of their commander. He kept them on the ground where the battle commenced, regularly drawn up, fair marks for a foe who was out of their reach. The Indians, as might have been expected, singled out and shot down the officers. Not an officer on horseback escaped, except Washington, before whom the shield of Providence appears to have been thrown.

Braddock, who had ridden undismayed amidst continued showers of bullets, and had had three horses killed under him, at length received a mortal wound. Upon his fall, the regular troops fled with precipitation and disorder; but Washington formed, and covered the retreat of the provincials, who had been kept in the rear, being held by Braddock in the greatest contempt. The defeat was total; sixty-four officers out of eighty-five, and nearly half the privates were killed or wounded.

The flight of the army was so precipitate, that it made no halt till it met the division under Dunbar, then about forty miles in the rear, where Braddock died. To this division of the army was communicated the same spirit of flight, and they continued retreating till they reached Fort Cumberland. This was little less than one hundred and twenty miles from the place of action. Thus the loss of his own life, the ruin of a fine army, and the failure of the important project of driving the French from their possessions on the Ohio, were the consequence of Braddock's self-sufficiency and obstinate contempt of advice.

The command now devolved on Colonel Dunbar, who withdrew the regulars to Philadelphia, leaving the whole frontier of Virginia open to the inroads and depredations of the French and Indians.

The French at Fort Du Quesne had attempted to seduce from the English interest, the Indians, among whom were the Cherokees, a na-

Treaty with the
Cherokees.

tion that had long been among the most powerful allies of the colonies. Some of the principal Indians of this tribe gave notice of these intrigues to the governor of South Carolina, who, at their suggestion, met a council of the Cherokee chiefs in their own country, and concluded with them a treaty, which embraced conditions of peace, and ceded to Great Britain a large tract of land in South Carolina.

SECTION V.

TOWARDS the last of August, Gen. Johnson advanced from Albany to the south end of lake George, and with the main army encamped on a rising ground, having a thick wood on each side, and the lake in the rear; and here he began with all possible despatch to make preparations for crossing the lake, to attack Crown Point.

Aug.
Gen. Johnson
encamps at lake
George.

In the mean time, the French, under Dieskau, had advanced from Montreal, and waited at Crown Point the arrival of the English army; but finding that they did not approach, he sailed from Ticonderoga, and proceeded by South Bay, towards Fort Edward, intending to attack that place. Gen. Johnson had here left, under Col. Blanchard, 500 of the militia from New-York and New Hampshire.

The French advance towards fort Edward.

Having received from Indian scouts, intelligence of the French at Ticonderoga, and again learned that they were within four miles of Fort Edward, Johnson called a council of officers, and with their advice detached from the lake, in order to intercept the enemy, one thousand men, under the command of Col. Ephraim Williams, of Massachusetts, accompanied by Hendrick and two hundred of his Indians. Dieskau had received intelligence that the army at the lake was without arms or cannon, and by the unanimous desire of his Canadian and Indian troops, who feared to approach these instruments of death, he changed his plan of attack, and proceeded towards the main camp. When within three miles of it, the detachment which had been sent out, under Col. Williams, was discovered. Dieskau immediately laid an ambuscade, into which they were drawn, surrounded, and defeated, with the loss of Col. Williams, Hendrick, and many other officers and men. Col. Whiting having succeeded in the command, extricated the troops from the ambuscade, and retreated with them to the main camp.

A detachment under Col. Williams sent to intercept them, is defeated.

Gen. Johnson had but just completed a breastwork of trees, in front of his position, and mounted his artillery. He had heard the firing, and as it approached nearer and nearer, he made every exertion to receive the enemy, who followed close upon his own troops, as they entered, and advanced, in regular order, to the centre of the camp. They halted at a little distance, which gave the provincials time to recover from the first alarm, so that when the French commenced the attack, they were re-

Sept. 8.
Battle at lake
George, and defeat of the French

pulsed with spirit and resolution. The provincials now became the assailants ; and victory declared in their favour. Dieskau was compelled to retreat ; many of his troops were killed by a party which followed from the camp ; and himself was found, wounded and alone ; and in this condition, he was secured as a prisoner. Gen. Johnson had been wounded early in the action ; and Gen. Lyman having succeeded him in the command, the provincials considered him as entitled to the honour of having led the troops to victory. Johnson, however, so represented the affair to the British government, that he received, as a compensation for his services, a baronetcy and five thousand pounds. The loss of the provincials was about two hundred men, principally those belonging to the detachment under Col. Williams ; that of the French was 700 killed, and 300 made prisoners.

1755. The remainder of the French army halted, after their route, near the place where Colonel Williams had in the morning been defeated. The next day they were here surprised, by a party of 120 New Hampshire militia, from Fort Edward, under Capt. M'Ginnes, who, after a severe conflict, gained a second decisive victory over them, and put them to flight. Capt. M'Ginnes unfortunately received a fatal wound.*

The success at lake George revived the spirits of the colonies ; but Gen. Johnson, instead of proceeding with the army to reduce Crown Point, which was the object of the expedition, employed the remainder of the campaign in strengthening the works at Fort Edward, and erecting a fort at the lake, which was called Fort William Henry. The last of November, the troops, with the exception of six hundred, who were left to garrison these forts, returned to their respective colonies.

Attack on Crown Point abandoned. The enterprise against Niagara† was undertaken by Gov. Shirley, in person. He did not arrive at Oswego until the 21st of August, where, waiting for supplies until the season was too far advanced for crossing the lake Ontario, he left

* “ In the midst of these battle grounds is a circular pond, where the dead bodies of most of those who were slain on this eventful day, were thrown. From that time to the present, it has been called the ‘ Bloody Pond,’—and there is not a child in this region, but will point you to the French Mountain and the Bloody Pond ; and the tradition of the fact will be handed down to the latest posterity.”

† Niagara was one of the most important posts in America. It was the grand link which connected the colonies of Canada and Louisiana ; and the only way by which the Indians south of the lake could communicate with those of the north ; and whoever commanded this post, must, in a greater or less degree, command all the Indians on the western frontier. Crown Point secured the absolute command of lake Champlain, and guarded the only passage to Canada. By the reduction of this, the frontiers of New England and New-York would be, in a measure, secured.

700 hundred men, under Col. Mercer, to garrison the fort, and returned to Albany.

All this had been done without any declaration of war between France and England. The French ambassador, at the British court, exclaimed against it, as being inconsistent with the law of nations; while the English government insisted that a formal declaration of war was not necessary to authorize them to repel invasion by force. This state of things could not long continue, and in 1756 war was proclaimed between the two nations.

1756.

War declared between England & France.

Gov. Shirley, on his return from Oswego, the preceding autumn, had received the command of all the king's forces in America. He immediately assembled at New-York a council of colonial governors, when it was proposed that, at the ensuing campaign, the northern colonies should raise sixteen thousand men for expeditions against Crown Point and Niagara; while the southern colonies, aided by some regiments of regulars, should raise three thousand for the reduction of Fort Du Quesne. To facilitate the operations of the northern colonies, a detachment of 2,000 troops was to be sent up the Kennebec, to divide the attention of the French, by making a feint on Quebec. Shirley, being governor of Massachusetts, returned to Boston, in January, to meet the assembly. That body, dissatisfied with the inefficient efforts of the last campaign, refused to concur in the proposed measures, unless their forces were put under the command of Gen. Winslow, whose success in Nova Scotia had inspired them with confidence. The patriotic Shirley readily acceded to this proposal.

A council of colonial governors,

Preparations for campaigns.

Early in the spring of 1756, information was received that General Shirley was superseded in command by Gen. Abercrombie. To raise the number of troops requisite for the several expeditions which had been determined on by the council, the preceding autumn, required no inconsiderable exertion, on the part of the colonies; and with their most vigorous efforts, but slow progress was made, in the accomplishment of the objects of the campaign. The French now possessed Ticonderoga, and it had been proposed, the preceding autumn, to get possession of this place by crossing the lake on the ice, and thus to facilitate the taking of Crown Point; but the mildness of the winter had prevented the execution of this plan. Gen. Winslow, on taking his command, found that a sufficient number of troops had not been raised for the expedition. The militia of the colonies assembled at Albany; but Gen. Abercrombie did not arrive to direct their operations, until midsummer. The British troops which he brought with him, supplied the deficiency, in the numbers of the colonial forces; but their arrival also created a new cause for delaying the expedition, by a dispute which occurred between generals

1756. Abercrombie and Winslow, concerning military rank.—

Operations delayed by dispute with regard to military rank.

Such were the regulations of the crown, on this subject, that it was feared dissatisfaction would be created among the provincial troops, in consequence of British officers being placed over them. This point of honour,

was, however, adjusted between Winslow and Abercrombie, by making arrangements for the provincials to proceed against Crown Point, under Winslow, while the British troops were to occupy the posts which they vacated.

Lord Loudon arrives as commander-in-chief

In July, Lord Loudon arrived in America, as commander-in-chief of the British forces, and governor of Virginia; but affairs went on with no greater spirit or activity than they had done, previous to his arrival. The contest respecting military rank was revived. The colonial officers however agreed to act in conjunction with European troops; and the commander-in-chief consented that those raised in the New England colonies should act separately. It was therefore satisfactorily adjusted.

During this period of inactivity on the part of the British generals, the Marquis de Montcalm, who had succeeded Dieskau in the command of the French troops, had not only made preparations against future attacks, but had commenced offensive operations. The French

Offensive operations of the French.

had reduced a fort in the country of the Six Nations; and, continuing to watch the operations of the English, had laid an ambush to surprise a detachment under Col.

Bradstreet, which was sent to convey provisions from Schenectady to Oswego. Col. Bradstreet had, however, prepared himself for such an event. On the third of July, as he was sailing along the Oswego river,

Col. Bradstreet defeats a party of French.

he was saluted by a general discharge of musketry. He immediately landed, repulsed the French, and took nearly seventy prisoners.

From these prisoners, the colonel learned that the enemy were making preparations for the siege of Oswego. He immediately returned to Albany, to convey the intelligence to Gen. Abercrombie. Gen. Webb was ordered to hold himself in readiness to march to the relief of the garrison. But the British generals, with a force sufficient to have penetrated to the heart of Canada, remained inactive at Albany,

Aug 12.

Gen. Webb marches to relieve Oswego.

until the 12th of August, when Gen. Webb commenced his march for Oswego. He had advanced to the carrying place between the Mohawk and Wood Creek, when he received intelligence of the surrender of that place.

Montcalm, with more than 5,000 regulars, Canadians, and Indians, had invested the fort, on the 10th of August. The garrison having, on the 13th, experienced the loss of their courageous and veteran

commander, Col. Mercer, and judging their fort to be indefensible, on the 14th surrendered themselves as prisoners of war. The French, by the possession of Oswego, obtained the sole command of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and the whole country of the Six Nations.

Aug. 14.
Oswego surrendered to the French.

Upon the loss of this important post, every plan of offensive operation was relinquished. Gen. Webb, with 1,400 men, was at the carrying place; Gen. Winslow was ordered to remain and strengthen Fort William Henry; and the expedition up the Kennebec ended in a mere scouting party. Nor was the management of affairs, during the campaign of 1756, more fortunate in the southern colonies. Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland did not agree upon any regular plan of defence; and no measures were taken to carry on the expedition against Fort Du Quesne. Fort Granby, on the confines of Pennsylvania, was surprised and taken by a party of French and Indians, who made frequent incursions into the frontier settlements, and committed depredations on the defenceless inhabitants.

The enemy harass the southern settlements.

Lord Loudon now pretended it was too late to attempt any thing against the enemy; and spent the remainder of the season in preparations for an early campaign the next spring.

SECTION VI.

No better success attended the schemes of Lord Loudon, during the succeeding year. In the spring, he found himself at the head of a considerable army; but, instead of marching to the invasion of Canada, or attempting the reduction of any important fortress on the lakes, with 6,000 regulars, he sailed for Halifax on the 6th of July, and joined, at that place, an English fleet, under Admiral Holborn, carrying a reinforcement of 5,000 troops. Their united forces were to attack Louisbourg; but, on learning the strength of the place, and the arrival of a squadron of French ships, with a large land force, Lord Loudon abandoned the expedition, and returned to New-York. The provincials were dismissed, and, in September, the fleet, being shattered by a violent tempest, returned to England. Lord Loudon, the following winter, left the country.

1757.

English meditate an attack on Louisbourg.

Determined to avail himself of the absence of a principal part of the British force, the active Montcalm concentrated his forces at Ticonderoga, consisting of regu-

French under Montcalm besiege Fort William Henry.

lars, Canadians, and Indians, and passing up lake George, he commenced the siege of Fort William Henry, with 9,000 men. Col. Monroe, a British officer, commanded at that place. His force consisted of 2,200 regulars and provincials, part of whom were posted at Fort William Henry, and the remainder in a fortified camp, where Fort George was subsequently built. Gen. Webb was, at this time, at Fort Edward with the English main army, consisting of 4,000 or 5,000 men. After several skirmishes, in the vicinity of Fort William Henry, Montcalm opened his batteries; and for six days the siege was vigorously pressed. Monroe defended his position with spirit, and, in the mean time, earnestly solicited aid from Webb; but finding that inactive commander deaf to his entreaties, having burst many of his guns, and expended most of his ammunition, he was at length compelled to surrender.

Monroe capitulates.

A capitulation was signed on the ninth of August, by which the troops were allowed the honours of war, and were, from fears on account of the Indians, to be sent under an escort to Fort Edward. Soon after Monroe capitulated, a detachment of the

Massacre at Fort William Henry.

French took possession of his works. About the same time, the Indians, who had engaged to serve in the war on the promise of plunder, irritated at the terms of the surrender, rushed over the parapet, and began to take such small articles as they could seize with impunity, and at length became so bold as to plunder the officers' baggage. Monroe, feeling the horrors of his situation, with his troops exposed at midnight within the camp to the cruelty of the savages, vainly attempted to conduct them forth; but no sooner had he put them in motion, than he found, that, bad as was their situation within the camp, it was worse without; for the woods were infested with ferocious Indians, thirsting for blood and plunder. He complained to Montcalm of a breach of the articles of capitulation; but that officer, enthralled by his engagements with the savages, and probably operated on by his fears, connived at their barbarity; and when the troops under Monroe left the camp in the morning to commence their march, instead of the promised escort, they received from the French officers, the advice to give up their private property as a means of appeasing the Indians. They attempted this, and threw them their money and effects; but their rapacity increasing with this partial gratification, they rushed, tomahawk in hand, upon the English, now a band of desperate fugitives, who were stripping off their clothes, and glad to escape naked with their lives. The sick, the wounded, the women, and the children unable to escape in this way, were murdered with all the aggravating circumstances which savage cruelty could suggest. Some that had escaped to Fort Edward, were wrought by agony of feeling to a state of delirium.

Webb, on receiving intelligence of the capitulation, ordered five hundred men to meet the captured troops, and conduct them to his camp;

but, instead of meeting them with an escort, they were discovered flying through the woods singly, or in small parties, some distracted, and many bleeding with the horrid cuts of the tomahawk, faint, and nearly exhausted. Soon after this shocking scene, Gen. Webb detached Maj. Putnam, with a corps of rangers, to watch the movements of Montcalm. He arrived at the lake just after the French had embarked, on their return to Ticonderoga. Along the road, dead bodies were every where seen weltering in blood, and violated with all the wanton mutilations of savage ingenuity.

During the years 1756 and 1757, Washington commanded a regiment which was raised for the protection of the frontiers of Virginia; and was incessantly occupied in efforts to shield the exposed settlements from the incursions of the savages. His exertions were in a great degree ineffectual, in consequence of the errors and pride of government, and the impossibility of guarding, with a few troops, an extended territory from an enemy which was averse to open warfare. He, in the most earnest manner, recommended offensive measures as the only method of giving complete protection to the scattered colonies.

Washington commands a regiment for the defence of Va.

There is nothing in the separate civil history of the colonies, during this period, which deserves particular attention. In all their proceedings with the royal governors, as well as in their direct intercourse with Great Britain, the colonists evinced that jealousy of their liberties, which prevented any bold attempt, on the part of Great Britain, to enforce those restrictive measures, which were thus early contemplated, with regard to America.

Civil affairs.

Pennsylvania still continued under the government of the proprietors. In 1757, a dispute arose between the proprietary governor and the assembly, respecting the right of the proprietors to exempt their own lands in the province from taxation, the object of which was to pay for the defence of those lands. To adjust this dispute, Benjamin Franklin was sent to England, and the business was soon closed, by the proprietors submitting their property to be taxed, provided the assessments were fair and equitable.

1757.
Dispute between the proprietors and inhabitants of Pennsylvania.

The languid and spiritless manner in which the war had been conducted, and its consequent ill success, aroused both England and America, and produced a reaction which carried England to her highest pinnacle of glory. The greatest statesman of her annals, William Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, was now called to the office of prime minister; and such was the influence of his towering eloquence and austere patriotism, that he controlled, not only the energies of the government, but the spirit of the people. His dreaded voice fearlessly denounced the selfishness and

Wm. Pitt made prime minister.

pusillanimity of the public agents, which had been employed while his keen eye could search out worth, and his generous hand bring forward, and reward it. Nor was his warmth the ebullition of the moment; his perseverance was equal to his energy, and his efforts were guided by a judgment which, while it was rapid in its decisions, was, at the same time, profound and comprehensive in its investigations. His powerful mind was fully manifest in the impulse which he gave to the British affairs in America. Aware that the colonies were in danger of being discouraged by the inefficiency of the parent country, Pitt assured them, in a circular letter which he addressed to the governors of the provinces, that an effectual force should be sent against the French, both by sea and land, and he exhorted them to use their ut-

1758.

Great exertions
made in the co-
lonies.

most exertions to raise as large bodies of men as the population of their respective colonies would allow. Animated by this call, and these assurances, from a man who had restored their confidence in the British government, the colonists renewed their efforts,* and increased their army to 20,000 men.

Gen. Abercrombie was appointed to succeed the earl of Loudon in the command of all the British forces in America. An armament was sent out under Admiral Boscawen, bearing 12,000 British troops under Major General Amherst, which, with the British forces, previously in America, and the provincial troops, made up an army of fifty thousand; a far greater force than had ever before existed at the same time in America: and such was the awakened energy of the public spirit, that these troops were all in readiness for action early in the spring. Nor were they delayed by irresolution as to the objects to be attempted. These having been well considered the preceding winter, three expeditions were resolved on, against Louisbourg, Crown Point, and Fort Du Quesne.

The possession of Louisbourg was deemed important, principally because it would, by opening the gulf of St. Lawrence to the English, facilitate the seizure of the capital of Canada; the grand project of the British minister having nothing in view short of the absolute destruction of the French power in America. The enterprise against Louisbourg was conducted by the land and naval commanders, Amherst and Boscawen, with 20 ships of the line, and 14,000 men. The armament left Halifax on the 24th of May, and arrived before Louisbourg on the second of June. The garrison was commanded by a brave and experienced officer, the

A large arma-
ment sails to at-
tack Louisbourg.

* Of these, Massachusetts furnished 7,000; Connecticut 5,000; and New Hampshire 3,000

Chevalier de Drucourt. But his means of defence were not equal to his abilities, his garrison consisting of only 3,000 men, while his fortifications were in a ruinous condition. He had, however, for the security of the harbour, eleven warlike vessels, five of which were ships of the line. Three of these being sunk across the basin of the harbour, the English were obliged to land at some distance from the town. The landing of the men, artillery, and stores, was effected with little loss, and it next became the object of the British commander, to possess himself of an eminence near the town from which he could annoy the enemy, and destroy the fortifications. This service was performed with great boldness and skill, and is rendered remarkable in the annals of history, from its being the opening scene of military glory for the hero of this war—the gallant James Wolfe; one whom the searching eye of Pitt had discovered, and his energetic hand brought forth as a man fit for the post of difficulty and danger. The eminence which Wolfe secured was called Light-house Point. Here heavy batteries were erected, as were also others on the opposite side of the town; although at a greater distance. In the mean time the fleet was rendering essential services. It had, from the first, blockaded the entrance of the St. Lawrence, so that the French supplies were cut off, not only from Louisbourg, but from their other colonies. Admiral Boscawen at length succeeded in getting possession of the harbour. A bomb from the battery at Light-house Point had set fire to one of the French ships, and the flames communicated the same fate to two others. Of the two remaining ships of the line, one ran aground, and was destroyed by a party sent out by the British admiral, and the other was towed off in triumph. The unfortunate De Drucourt, seeing himself surrounded on all sides, his harbour filled with British ships, and his fortifications crumbling before their batteries, influenced by the wishes of the traders and inhabitants, at length agreed to capitulate; and, on the 6th of July, resigned the place to the British commander. Thus ended the most important and best conducted siege which had ever been laid in America. The loss was deeply felt by France, and the gain no less sensibly by England, and her rejoicing colonies. The merchants and inhabitants were sent to France, and the garrison and marines, amounting to 5,637, were transported to England. Two hundred and twenty pieces of cannon and eighteen mortars, besides much of the French shipping, fell into the hands of the English. Their loss was between four and five hundred men. Having obtained possession of Louisbourg they extended with ease

Gen. Wolfe secures Light-house Point.

Batteries erected to command the town.

The Fr. ships are destroyed, & the English possess the harbour.

July 6.
Louisbourg surrenders.

English obtain Cape Breton and the island of St. John's.

their conquests over the whole island of Cape Breton, and subsequently over that of St. Johns.*

Expedition against Crown Point and Ticonderoga.

The joy arising from these conquests was checked by the disastrous result of the expedition against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, forts which commanded lake Champlain. This expedition was led by Abercrombie, in person, with 16,000 effective men. He was accompanied by the gallant and amiable Lord Howe. The troops embarked on lake George, on the 5th of July, and landed without opposition, under the cover of several pieces of heavy artillery. The French not being in sufficient force to oppose them, deserted their camp and made a hasty retreat. The English general then advanced towards the fortress of Ticonderoga, through woods which were almost impassable, and with unskilful guides. When approaching the fort, a skirmish took place with a small party of the enemy, in which Lord Howe was killed. On seeing him fall, the troops moved forward, resolutely determined to avenge his death. Three hundred of the enemy were killed on the spot, and one hundred made prisoners.

July 8.
Abercrombie repulsed at Ticonderoga.

Abercrombie, having learned that a reinforcement of 3,000 men was daily expected by the French, was resolved to storm the place before it should arrive. He did not even wait for his artillery; and probably to this precipitation it was owing that the attempt was unsuccessful, notwithstanding the great bravery of the soldiers. After a contest of four hours, the expedition was relinquished. Near 2,000 of the assailants were killed or wounded. The loss of the French was not great, and most of the killed were shot through the head, the other parts of their bodies being protected by the works.

Aug. 27.
Bradstreet takes Fort Frontenac.

After this repulse, Abercrombie retired to his former quarters, on the south side of lake George. Here he consented, at the solicitation of Colonel Bradstreet, to detach him with 3,000 men, against Fort Frontenac. With these troops, who were mostly provincials, he marched to Oswego, embarked on lake Ontario, and landed on the 25th of August within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and in two days forced this important fortress to surrender. As this fort contained the military stores which were intended for the Indians, and for the supply of the southwestern troops, its demolition contributed to the success of the expedition against Fort Du Quesne.

* The English historians speak with severe reprehension of the French governor of St. John's; in whose quarters was found a human scalp, which had been bought of the Indians. They little supposed that a British legislative hall would ever be disgraced by the same inhuman trophy. (See account of the capture of York, April 27, 1813.)

To dispossess the French at Fort Du Quesne, was the object of the third expedition contemplated this year. To this Washington had long looked with anxiety; as the security of Virginia and the adjacent states from Indian incursions depended on the possession of this important post. The enterprise was entrusted to General Forbes, who, early in July, marched from Philadelphia with the main body of the army to Ray's town, about ninety miles from Fort Du Quesne, where he experienced a long delay. It was not until September that the Virginia regulars were ordered to join him. Against all the remonstrances of Colonel Washington, by whom they were commanded, Gen. Forbes resolved to open a new road from this place to the Ohio. About the same time he sent forward a detachment under Maj. Grant, to reconnoitre Fort Du Quesne and the adjacent country. This officer imprudently invited an attack from the French garrison, and in the action which followed, three hundred of his party were killed or taken prisoners, and the remainder made a disorderly retreat. Maj. Grant and nineteen officers were among the prisoners.

July.
Expedition against Fort Du Quesne.

A detachment under Maj. Grant defeated.

Not discouraged by this adverse circumstance, Gen. Forbes left Ray's town, on the 8th of October, with an army of 8,000 men, but such was the delay occasioned by opening the new road, that it was determined not to proceed any farther during the campaign. Intelligence which was received, of the weakness of the French garrison, induced an alteration of this plan; and, by slow marches, the army was enabled to reach Fort Du Quesne, on the 25th of November, of which they took peaceable possession; the enemy having, on the preceding night, set fire to the fort, abandoned it, and proceeded down the Ohio. The works at this place were repaired, and its name changed to Fort Pitt, since called Pittsburg. Gen. Forbes invited the Indians to his fort, and entered into a treaty of friendship and alliance with those tribes between the Ohio and the lakes. This officer, worn out with the fatigues of the expedition, set out for Philadelphia, but died on the way.

Nov. 25.
English take possession of Fort Du Quesne.

Thus terminated the campaign of 1758. America had been the principal theatre of the warlike operations of Great Britain. A mighty force had been brought into action; and, although every expectation had not been realized, yet the successes of the campaign were decisive and honourable to the nation.

Another event of this year contributed to produce the fortunate issue of the next. This was a treaty of peace with the Indians between the Appalachian mountains and the lakes. The French, while in possession of Fort Du Quesne, had exerted great influence over them, and succeeded in estranging them from the English. The grand assembly was held at Easton, in Penn.

Treaty with the Indians.

sylvania, and the treaty managed, on the part of Great Britain, by the governors of New-York and New Jersey, Sir William Johnson, and other agents, appointed for this purpose. Deputies were sent from the Six Nations, from the Nanticokes, Conies, Tuteloës, Delawares, Minisinks, Mohicans, and a few other tribes, with whom all matters of dispute were satisfactorily settled, and a treaty of peace concluded.

SECTION VII.

1759. Objects of this campaign. THE campaign of 1759, had for its object the entire reduction of Canada. After the disaster at Ticonderoga, the chief command was given to Major General Amherst.

The British army was divided into three parts, exhibiting the following order. The first division, under Brigadier General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself at the siege of Louisbourg, was to make an attempt on Quebec, the principal fortress of the enemy in Canada. The second division, under General Amherst, was to be led against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, after which it was to unite with that of Wolfe at Quebec; and the third, under General Prideaux, consisting of provincials and Indians, was to march against the strong hold of Niagara; and afterwards to proceed down the St. Lawrence, and attack Montreal. These three armies were to enter Canada by different routes, and attack, at nearly the same time, all the strong holds of the French in that country; viz. Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Niagara, and Quebec.

Amherst takes Crown Point and Ticonderoga. It was late in July before Gen. Amherst reached Ticonderoga. The fortress soon surrendered, and after repairing the works, he proceeded against Crown Point, which, on his approach, was evacuated, and the enemy returned to the Isle Aux Noix. Gen. Amherst did not follow up his successes, but led back his army to Crown Point, where he encamped for the winter.

The division under Prideaux, destined against Niagara, arrived there without loss or opposition, and on the 6th of July, the fort was besieged in form. While directing the operations of the siege, Gen. Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a shell, and the command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who successfully prosecuted the plans of his lamented predecessor. The French made great efforts to relieve the

July.
Niagara is besieged, and surrenders to the English.

garrison of this important fortress, which they considered the key to the interior of their empire in America. They gave battle to the English, but the Indians, in their alliance deserted them in the heat of the engagement, and victory declared in favour of their opponents. This

battle determined the fate of the place ; and the garrison, consisting of 600 men, fell into the hands of the British ; and thus all communication between the northern and southern possessions of the French was effectually barred. The loss of the British was considerable.

But the boldest and most important part of the plan of the campaign was that under Gen. Wolfe, against Quebec, the capital of the French possessions, and the strong-

Wolfe conducts
an expedition
against Quebec.

est fortress of America. Wolfe employed the winter in making all necessary preparations, and was ready, the moment the ice permitted, to sail from the harbour of Louisbourg. He was convoyed by the admirals Saunders and Holmes ; and had an army of 8,000 men, and a formidable train of artillery. After a prosperous voyage, late in June, he landed his army on the island of Orleans. From this

1759.

spot Wolfe reconnoitered the position of his enemy, and saw the full magnitude of the difficulties which surrounded him. The city of Quebec rose before him, upon the

He lands his
troops on the
Isle of Orleans.

north side of the St. Lawrence ; its upper town and strong fortifications, situated on a rock, whose bold and steep front continued far westward, parallel with the river, its base near to the shore ; thus presenting a wall, on the southern side, which it seemed impossible to scale. From the northwest came down the St. Charles, entering the St. Lawrence just below the town ; its banks high and uneven, and cut by deep ravines ; while armed vessels were borne upon its waters, and floating batteries obstructed its entrance. Farther down the St. Lawrence was the mouth of the river Montmorency ; and Wolfe learned that between this river and the St. Charles was strongly posted the French army, said to be in force equal to his own, and known to be commanded by the same Montcalm, whose prowess the fields of Fort William Henry, Oswego, and Ticonderoga could attest. When Wolfe looked upon this prospect, his reason showed him that there were fearful chances against him ; and this he communicated to his government ; yet he possessed that ardent enthusiasm, which is the more stimulated as difficulties increase, and he proceeded with alacrity, resolved that his career should terminate in glory, or in death.

His first measure was to take possession of Point Levi, on the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec. Here he erected heavy batteries, and opened them upon the town. They

Takes posses-
sion of Pt. Levi.

did great execution among the houses, particularly those of the lower town, which is built on the strand, along the margin of the river, at the base of the huge rock on which rest the fortifications ; but the fortress itself was totally uninjured by the batteries at Point Levi.

Perceiving this, Wolfe next sought to draw Montcalm from his intrenchments, and bring on an engagement. For this purpose he landed his army below the Montmo-

He seeks an en-
gagement with
the French, and
retires with loss

to the Isle of
Orleans.

rency; but the wary Montcalm eluded every artifice to draw him out. Wolfe next crossed the Montmorency, with a portion of his army, and attacked him in his camp. The troops which were to commence the assault fell into confusion, from having, with irregular ardour, disobeyed the orders of the general. Perceiving their confusion, he drew them off with the loss of 400 men; recrossed the Montmorency, and retired to the island of Orleans. He formed various other plans for annoying the enemy; one of which was, in conjunction with the admiral, to destroy their shipping, but, in all, except a project of burning some magazines at Chambaud, he was unsuccessful.

Wolfe burns a
magazine at
Chambaud.

Difficulties of his
situation.

At this point of the enterprise, the soul of the young hero was severely tried. Success seemed to fly from his grasp; yet he felt, that with the people of his country, success would be the criterion of his merit; and that want of it would stamp him with disgrace, however little he might deserve it. He had heard of the fortunate issue of the other expeditions of the campaign; and he contrasted the situation of the victors with his own. To crown his uneasiness, the expected succour from Amherst was likely to fail him. He sighed frequently. His countenance sometimes flashed with his lofty designs, and sometimes sunk in gloom, as he dreaded their failure, which he determined not to survive. His mind towered above the sensibilities of his heart, and kept on its course; but his bodily health sunk beneath the keenness of his feelings. He wrote to Mr. Pitt, a letter, which, had he been unfortunate in the attempt he meditated, would have been the best apology for what he was sensible was temerity. "We have," says he, "almost the whole force of Canada to oppose; the affairs of Great Britain require the most vigorous measures; but," added he, as if preparing him for disappointment, "the courage of a handful of brave men should be exerted, only where there is hope of a favourable event."

Resolves to at-
tempt scaling
the Heights of
Abraham.

The plan which Wolfe had resolved in his mind, and now, with the approbation of a council of his officers, determined to attempt, was to scale, in the night, and at some distance above Quebec, the bold precipice on which the fortifications were built, and thus reach the level plain above, called the Heights of Abraham.

Montcalm who perceived from the breaking up of the camp at Orleans, the embarkation of Wolfe's army, and their subsequent moving up the river, that something was to be attempted, despatched M. de Bourgainville, with 1,500 men, to move higher up the St. Lawrence, and watch the motions of the English.

Wolfe, notwithstanding he was labouring under a complication of bodily diseases, would trust the execution of his plan to no one but him-

self. He directed Admiral Holmes, who commanded the squadron, in which himself and the army had embarked, to sail up the river several miles higher than the intended point of debarkation. This movement deceived De Bourgainville, and gave Wolfe the advantage of the current and the tide, to float his boats silently down to the destined spot. This was done about an hour before daylight. Wolfe was the first man who leaped on shore. When he saw the difficulties around him, he said to some one near, "I do not believe there is a possibility of getting up, but we must do our endeavour."

He gains the plains of Abraham, and prepares for battle.

The rapidity of the stream was hurrying along their boats, and some had already gone beyond the narrow landing-place. The shore was so shelving, that it was almost impossible to ascend; and it was lined with French sentinels. One of these hailed, and was answered by a captain, who fully understood the French language, and who had been especially instructed for this purpose. Escaping these dangers at the water's edge, they proceeded, though with the utmost difficulty, to scale the precipice, pulling themselves up by the roots and branches of the trees and the projecting rocks in their way. The first party who reached the heights, secured a small battery, which crowned them; and thus the remainder of the army ascended in safety; and here, on this lofty plain, which commands one of the most magnificent prospects which nature has formed, the British army, drawn up in a highly advantageous position, were, in the morning, discovered by the Marquis de Montcalm. This officer perceived with deep regret the advantage gained by his opponent. Leaving his strong position, he crossed the St. Charles, and prepared, with alacrity, for what he perceived he could no longer avoid—a battle, which he knew would decide the fate of Quebec; and which, in reality, decided also the sovereignty of the Canadas; and was, in its results, by far the most important engagement which had been fought in civilized America.

As soon as Wolfe had notice of the designs of the enemy, he formed his order of battle. His right wing was under the command of Gen. Monckton, his left under Gen. Murray; while another body of troops, under Brigadier General Townshend, prevented the intention of the French, of outflanking the British on the left. Montcalm had, on his part, made the most judicious arrangement of his men, and himself intrepidly led on the attack. Being on the left of the French, he was opposed to Wolfe, on the right of the British. The French advanced upon the English with great spirit, but their fire was irregular and ineffectual. The English reserved their fire, until the French were within forty yards, when they gave it with steadiness and effect. Desirous to follow up this advantage, the fearless Wolfe, though already wounded, put himself at the head of a party, whom he ordered to charge. They rushed on

Sep. 13.

The English obtain the victory.

impetuously, and the enemy were giving way. At that moment, a ball passing through his breast, he fell, mortally wounded. Monckton succeeded in command, and was ardently pushing the battle, when he too was wounded, and being carried from the field, Townshend took the command. Montcalm also fell mortally wounded, and his principal officers shared the same fate. The French gave way. The English advanced upon them with their bayonets fixed, and the Highlanders with their broadswords; and victory declared in favour of Great Britain.

The wound with which Wolfe fell was the third which he had received in the battle. He was removed from the field; but he watched it with intense anxiety, as faint with the loss of blood, he reclined his languid head upon the supporting arm of an officer. A cry was heard, "they fly, they fly!"—"Who fly?" he exclaimed. "The enemy," was the reply. "Then," said he, "I die content;" and expired. Not less heroic was the death of Montcalm. He rejoiced when told that his wound was mortal; "For," said he, "I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The battle cost fewer lives than might have been expected. The loss of the English was fifty men killed, and about five hundred wounded. About one thousand of the French were slain on the field of battle, and the same number made prisoners.

After the battle, the affairs of the English were conducted with great discretion by Gen. Townshend; whereas, the French, in their panic, appear to have yielded at once to the suggestions of their fears. The

Sep. 18. capitulation of Quebec was signed within five days after the battle. Townshend gave favourable terms to the garrison, for he knew that the resources of the French were by no means exhausted. They had a considerable army under De Bourgainville, ready to enter the town; also a force under M. de Levi, which, having advanced from Montreal, was now assembled in the neighbourhood of Quebec, whose fortifications were yet uninjured. Once, however, in command of these fortifications, the English were safe themselves, and found no difficulty in completing the subjugation of Canada.

Soon after the capture of Quebec, Gen. Townshend returned to England, leaving Gen. Murray in command with a garrison of 5,000 men. The French army retired to Montreal; and M. de Levi, who had succeeded Montcalm, being, in the course of the winter, reinforced by

1760. Canadians and Indians, the following spring, with a force of 6,000, returned to Quebec. Gen. Murray left the fortress, and the Heights of Abraham became the scene of another battle equally bloody, though not equally important in its consequences with the first. The armies on each side sustained the loss of 1,000 men. After the battle, Gen. Murray retired

within his fortifications; and M. de Levi, abandoning all thoughts of obtaining possession of Quebec, returned to Montreal; and here Vaudreil, the governor, assembled all the force of Canada.

In the mean time, Gen. Amherst had made arrangements for assembling before this place all the British forces, from lake Ontario, lake Champlain, and Quebec. Here they fortunately arrived within two days of each other, and immediately invested the place. Vaudreil found their united force too strong to be resisted; and on the 8th of September, he surrendered Montreal, Detroit, Michilimackinack, and all the French possessions in Canada, to his Britannic Majesty.

Canada surrendered to Great Britain.

George III. succeeded to the throne of England soon after the capture of Quebec; and Mr. Pitt, finding his influence with the new king not sufficiently great to allow to him the measures, for which, from the nature of his situation, he became responsible, resigned the seals in October, 1761. The earl of Bute was the following year made prime minister. The first object of the new administration was the restoration of peace; and contrary to the wishes of the nation, the minister prevailed, and the treaty was soon after formally ratified. Scarcely was this accomplished, when the earl of Bute, to the astonishment of the whole nation, resigned his place, which was immediately given to Mr. George Grenville, who was connected with the family of Mr. Pitt. It was now supposed that Mr. Pitt would again be brought into the cabinet; but he declined taking a part in the administration.

Accession of George III. changes the British ministry.

The French, in retiring from Fort Du Quesne into Louisiana, intrigued with the Cherokees, and succeeded in destroying the alliance, which had been so long maintained by that nation with the English. Carolina consequently suffered from their incursions, and was making preparations to proceed against them, when the savages received information of their designs, and sued for peace. In 1759, a treaty was concluded, but, notwithstanding, the following year, they again commenced hostilities upon this state. When the distressed situation of the Carolinians was made known to Gen. Amherst, he sent Col. Montgomery with a body of regu-

War with the Cherokees.

lars to their relief. Being joined by such forces as could be raised in Carolina, he marched into the Cherokee country, destroyed all their lower towns, and was approaching Etchoc, the first of their middle settlements, when he was attacked, in an almost impenetrable thicket, by a large body of savages. A severe action was fought. The English claimed the victory; but so great was their loss, that they immediately retreated from the country.

The war continuing to rage, Gen. Amherst was again solicited for

assistance ; and the following year, several regiments were detached under Col. Grant, who, early in June, marched into the Cherokee country, and found the Indians ready for battle, at the place where Col. Montgomery had defeated them. The contest was severe, but the English finally prevailed, and pursuing the enemy to Etchoc, burned their dwellings, and laid waste their whole country. The savages, completely

1761. humbled, begged for peace, which was granted, and the southern provinces were thus delivered from farther depredations.
The Cherokees are defeated.

England at war with Spain. In 1761, France and Spain entered into a “family compact.” By this means England became involved in a war with Spain ; and in 1762, she sent out a powerful fleet, and, aided by forces from New England, took from France Martinico, and, the other Carribee isles ; and from Spain, Havana, the capital of Cuba, which was her principal fortress and strong hold in America. In other parts of the world the arms of England were also successful, and she was thus enabled to obtain a highly advantageous peace.

1763. Preliminaries having been previously adjusted, the definitive treaty was signed at Paris in February, 1763, by which England obtained from France all her possessions in America, east of the Mississippi, excepting the island of New Orleans ; the navigation of that river being left open to both nations. From Spain she obtained Florida, in exchange for Havana ; and France, at the same time, gave to Spain the territory of Louisiana.
Peace of Paris.

Geographical notices of the country at the Sixth Epoch, or in 1763, the date of the Sixth Map.

New settlements were commenced in Georgia ; Savannah, New Inverness, Augusta, and Frederica, were founded. The town of Bennington, in Vermont, was settled. In Maine, the counties of Cumberland and Lincoln were formed.

Population.

New England,	500,000.
Connecticut,	141,000.
Massachusetts,	240,000.
Virginia,	170,000.
Maryland,	108,000.

North Carolina, 95,000 whites.

Pennsylvania,280,000.

New Jersey,more than 60,000.

The population of the other states unknown.

Principal Towns.—Boston, containing 15,500 inhabitants ; New-York, 12,000 ; Philadelphia, 13,000 ; Charleston, S. C. between 5 and 6,000. Capital of New Jersey removed to Perth Amboy.

For the other principal towns, see geographical notices at the Fifth Epoch.

Exports, &c.—Great quantities of tobacco were exported from Virginia and Maryland. Rice, pitch, turpentine, lignumvitæ, indigo, braziletto wood, and furs, from North and South Carolina. The amount of exports from Georgia, in the year 1760, amounted to 20,852 pounds. The commerce of South Carolina employed 300 ships.

Colleges.—Harvard and Yale Universities ; William and Mary's College, in Virginia ; Columbia College, in New York ; and Nassau Hall, in New Jersey.

Societies formed.

1742. The Library Company of Philadelphia, was incorporated.

1747. A Library was founded at Newport, R. I. for the promotion of literature in the colony.

1751. The South Carolina Society was incorporated.

1752. The Marine Society of Newport established.

1754. The Massachusetts Marine Society established.

Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period extending from 1733 to 1763.

Year in which they died.

ROBERT HUNTER, governor of New-York and New Jersey, and author of the celebrated Letter on Enthusiasm.

1734.

DAVID BRAINARD, an eminent preacher, and missionary to the Indians.

1747.

BENJAMIN COLMAN, D. D. a learned divine ; publications numerous ; chiefly theological.

JONATHAN DICKINSON, first president of New Jersey College

1751. JAMES LOGAN, an eminent scholar ; published several treatises in Latin ; also, a version of "Cicero de Senectute."
1757. AARON BURR, a learned divine, and president of Princeton College.
1758. THOMAS PRINCE, author of History of New England.
1758. JONATHAN EDWARDS, president of Princeton College, N. J. an eminent divine, and acute metaphysician ; published a "Treatise on the Affections."
1759. JAMES WOLFE, a celebrated English general.
1761. SAMUEL DAVIES, president of Princeton College ; author of several volumes of Sermons.

PART VII.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Close of the } **SIXTH EPOCH, 1763,** { French war, &c.

TO THE

The Declaration of Independence two years after the meeting of the } **SEVENTH EPOCH, 1776.** { first Continental Congress.



SECTION I.

WE come now to trace the causes by which England lost her colonies, and America gained her independence. Causes which led to the revolution.
 If we look back upon the general current of events, we shall find, that the determination made by England, soon after the peace of Paris, to tax her American colonies, and their subsequent resistance, to which the revolution is often solely referred, were themselves events naturally arising from the wide diversity of public sentiment and feeling, on certain subjects; so intimately connected with their mutual relations, that, in one way or another, the discontents thence arising, must, sooner or later, have come to the test of open and determined opposition. If a father fully believes himself justly possessed of power over his son, or an elder brother over a younger, which the son, or younger brother, solemnly considers as a mere tyrannical assumption, to which he could not submit, without degrading himself to a state of slavery, it is not difficult to predict, that, without a change of opinion, on one side or the other, a contest must arise; and, if the power of the elder party cannot force submission from the younger, a separation must ensue. This had now become the condition of England and America. Perhaps, the figurative language, by which England was called the mother country, had, as in many other cases of political delusion, no inconsiderable share in giving to the nation, to which all allowed a parental name, the idea that she had rights similar to those

which a parent has over a child ; whereas, on examination, scarcely the slightest analogy appears in the cases ; and, on the other hand, had it been common to use language, by which the colonists had been represented as brethren and fellow subjects with the people of England, as they justly claimed to be considered, England might not have been unjust, nor her colonies driven to revolt.

The most sagacious of the American statesmen, had long before perceived the unjust extent of the claims of England ; and had wisely drawn the conclusion, that if, as was probably to be expected, those claims should be enforced, the state of the colonies must be that of abject slavery ; a condition, which, to their erect, unyielding spirits, was worse than death itself ; and hence they had watched the storm as it gathered at a distance, and when, at length, it burst, it found them prepared for the emergency.

England believed, contrary to the opinion of the colonies, that she had a right to change their governments, although established by royal charters. She maintained that she could, at her pleasure, regulate

and restrict their commerce ; and to this opinion the colonies did not in general object ; but, in particular cases, they believed she carried this power to an oppressive extent. Finally, she claimed a right to collect

from the provinces, a revenue, either by external duties imposed for the regulation of trade, or by internal taxes, imposts on articles to be consumed by the colonists. It was the subject of internal taxation, on which the most decided opposition of opinions prevailed. The Americans did not dispute the right of the British, in respect to external taxes, except when carried to a vexatious extent, as in the case of the law, called the Sugar Act ; but the subject of internal taxes, having been deeply considered, they deliberately determined not to submit to their imposition in any manner, or by any assembly, except by one composed of their own representatives.

It has been already seen in how many instances, the British, acting consistently with these views, had attempted what the colonies considered encroachments upon their rights ; and that they had reluctantly submitted, evaded, or resisted, as the circumstances of the occasion, or the apprehended importance of the contested right, seemed to require. In many instances, they had opposed the governors sent over by the crown ; and those, by their complaints, had made the English government suppose that their American colonies were, by degrees, shaking off the authority of the crown, and tending to a state of independence ; to prevent which, measures must be taken to humble and subjugate them.

Such was the state of affairs at the commencement of the late war, between England and France, in which the colonies had so deep an

interest, and in which they bore so large a share. While pressed by a common enemy, these causes of dissension remained latent; but as soon as this war terminated, and while yet the colonies were rejoicing in being delivered from a foe, who had so long instigated the savages to midnight murder, the government of England began to deliberate by what means they could best bend the stubborn provincials, to what they considered due subjection. This was not, however, the only motive of the British ministry, in the acts which ensued. The expenses of the war had added more than three hundred millions of dollars to their national debt. To find means of defraying the annual charges of this debt, and the other increased expenditures, was now the difficult duty of the British government. Mr. Grenville, the minister, proposed, among other expedients, that of taxing America; alleging that the money to be raised was to defray the expenses incurred in her defence. This project, thus made public, was pursued, as will be seen, through a series of measures, to its consummation; and though its declared object was to raise an inconsiderable sum of money, yet that its real, prevailing motive was, to humble and subjugate the colonies, is clearly to be seen, in the consequence attached to the measure in parliament, and in America; in the manner in which it was vindicated and opposed; and finally, by other measures of the same tendency, which were simultaneously pursued by the British government.

Taxing of America proposed.

As early as 1760, the mutual jealousies between the colonies and the mother country appeared in Massachusetts, on the occasion of an attempt to enforce the act, by which duties were laid on foreign sugar and molasses, which, having been considered oppressive, had been evaded. The custom-house officers were directed, in case of supposing these articles to be concealed, to apply to the superior court of the colony for what were termed, "writs of assistance," which appear to have been a kind of general search warrant. Any petty custom-house officer, armed with one of these, might, on pretence of searching for these articles, invade, at his pleasure, the family retirement of any gentleman in the province. Besides this apprehended grievance, the trade of the colonists would suffer severely from the rigid collection of these duties. The people of Boston, therefore, determined to oppose the granting of writs of assistance, and employed two of their most eminent lawyers, Oxenbridge Thatcher and James Otis, for this purpose. The latter of these gentlemen defended the cause of American rights with such impetuosity of eloquence, that one who heard him, John Adams, afterwards himself so highly distinguished, said, "Otis was a flame of fire!—Every man of an immense crowded audience, went away ready to take arms against

Retrospective.

1760.

Difficulty in enforcing the sugar act.

Opposition to writs of assistance.

writs of assistance. Then and there was the first scene of opposition to the arbitrary claims of Great Britain; then and there American Independence was born."

The court took time to deliberate on the question of granting the writ; and, after various delays, and an unsuccessful attempt to move the officers of the English government not to press the subject, the writs were, at length, under certain restrictions, granted; but such was their unpopularity, that they were little used. These circumstances are, however, material in history, as they show the spirit of the times. It will be recollected that this scene was acted, before the attempts of the British ministry in parliament, to introduce into America a regular system of taxation, to which, as has been remarked, the revolution has often been solely referred.

1762.

Change in the government of the colonies contemplated by England.

In 1762, plans for changing the American governments were on foot, and Lord Bute employed gentlemen to travel the country, for the purpose of making the necessary previous observations. This much dreaded measure, as the colonists learned, by intercepted letters, had been recommended by Sir Francis Bernard, who, in 1760, arrived in Massachusetts, as the royal governor. Bernard, in his letters, avowed the opinion that parliament had full power to alter the colonial governments, and to change their respective boundaries, notwithstanding the royal charters. He recommended the establishment of a hereditary nobility, and asserted the right of parliament to tax the colonies, but suggested the expediency of admitting to the British parliament representatives from America. The publication of these letters gave great alarm to the colonies, and was one cause of the opposition of Massachusetts to this man, who it was seen had thus acted the part of deadly hostility to their vital interests.

1764.

Stamp duty proposed, & others made perpetual.

In 1764,* Lord Grenville gave notice to the American agents in London, that it was his intention to draw a revenue from the colonies, and that he should, in the ensuing session of parliament, propose a duty on stamps.

* The same year a general treaty of peace was concluded with the Indians around the upper lakes. Soon after the treaty of Paris, disturbances were made by these Indians, who attempted to possess themselves of the places which had been fortified by the French. Detroit sustained, for twelve months, a most distressing siege, from a combination of several tribes, who united under Pontiac, an Ottawa chief, to destroy the place. By a deeply concerted stratagem, this bold and courageous warrior attempted to accomplish his object; but his plans were fortunately discovered, and the garrison saved. During the siege, several skirmishes were fought between the army of Pontiac and the besieged; in all of which this chief displayed great military skill. A reinforcement of 3,000 men, under Gen. Bradstreet, arriving to the relief of Maj. Gladwyn, the siege was relinquished, and soon after, the treaty of peace with the Indians was concluded. This article is inserted in a note, that the connexion of the events leading to the revolution, may remain unbroken.

He wished them to communicate with their constituents, and learn whether any other duties, equally productive, and more agreeable to the colonies, might be substituted. Soon after, resolutions were passed in the house of commons; continuing, and making perpetual, the odious duties on sugar, and molasses,* and some other articles imported into the colonies.

The colonial agents in London, informed their respective colonies of the intended system of taxation. A great alarm was excited. Massachusetts instructed her agents to deny the right of parliament to impose taxes upon those who were not represented in the house of commons. The house of burgesses in Virginia, appointed a committee to prepare an address to the king and parliament; expressing their sense of the destructive consequences of such a measure. The assembly of New-York, also sent her petitions; which, in a spirit more bold and decided than those from any other colony, asserted her own rights, and the limitations of British power. Associations were formed in all the colonies to encourage home manufactures, and prohibit, as much as possible, the use of British goods. The tendency of this judicious measure was to make the colonists less dependent; and, by operating injuriously on the British merchants, to make them a party against the ministry.

These measures
alarm the colo-
nists.

In the mean time, the British government were aware that they had to deal with a spirited people; yet they closed their eyes to the full evidence of the stern independence of the American character. Sir Robert Walpole, in the reign of George II. had understood it better; when, in reply to those who advised him to raise a revenue, by taxing America, he said, "he left that to those who should come after him—who had more courage than himself;" and Mr. Pitt also, when, according to his own expression, he did not choose "to burn his fingers with an American tax."

Notwithstanding the opposition, which, in truth, was not unexpected, in 1765, Lord Grenville, pursuant to his declared intention, introduced into the British parliament, his project for taxing America, to commence with duties on stamps. In the house of commons, the project, though ably supported, met with ardent and animated opposition. It was on this occasion, that Col. Barre made that unpremeditated effort of eloquence, which has made his name, to this day, appear to Americans, like that of a

1765.
The Stamp Act.

* These duties had existed since 1733, but the colonists had resisted their execution with such spirit, that they could not be enforced. In one of Gov. Bernard's letters, he observes, rather humourously, that an attempt to enforce the molasses act "caused more alarm in Massachusetts, than the massacre at Fort William Henry."

friend.* Yet neither the eloquence of Col. Barre, the petitions of the London merchants, nor the remonstrances of the colonies, could prevent the passage of the stamp act. Of three hundred, who voted in the house of commons, only fifty were against it; in the house of lords, there was not a single dissenting voice; and the royal assent was readily obtained.

By this act, no written instrument could be legal, unless the paper was stamped on which it was drawn; and this stamped paper was to be purchased, at exorbitant prices, of the agents of the British government. The act farther provided that different prices should be given for the stamped paper, in some measure proportioned to the magnitude of the transaction for which it was needed.

Jurisdiction of the courts of admiralty extended Provision was made for the recovery of penalties for the breach of this act, as of all others relating to trade and revenue, in any admiralty, or king's marine court, throughout the colonies. These courts, contrary to the usage of similar tribunals in England, proceeded in trials, without the intervention of a jury. The acts of which they took cognizance, were so extremely unpopular, that it would have been difficult to procure convictions, if the people themselves had been judges of the facts. This act, both in regard to the suspension of what the colonists regarded as one of the most important of their rights, that of trial by jury, and also in regard to that extension of jurisdiction, by which they were liable to be called to trial, for real or supposed offences, to distant provinces, was, next to that for direct taxation, the most obnoxious to the colonies of any aggression of the British government.

Act for quartering troops in America.

Anticipating opposition to these measures, parliament passed laws for sending troops to America, and obliging the inhabitants of those colonies, in which they were stationed, to furnish them with quarters, and all necessary supplies.

The stamp act was to take effect on the first day of November. The night after its passage, Dr. Franklin, then in London, as agent for Pennsylvania, wrote to his friend Charles Thompson, "The sun of liberty is set; you must light up the candles of industry and economy." "Be assured," said Mr. Thompson, in reply, "we shall light up torches of quite another sort."

Opposition made to the stamp act in Virginia and the other colonies

On the arrival of the stamp act, the smothered feelings of the colonists broke forth into one general burst of indignation. The house of burgesses in Virginia were at that time in session. It was here that the first public opposition was made to the odious act; and the man, by whom the resolutions, which constituted this opposition, were introduced, was the

* See Appendix K

eloquent and ardent Patrick Henry, then a young lawyer, and a member of the house. Of his five celebrated resolutions, the first four asserted the rights and privileges claimed by the colonists; the last declared they were not bound to yield obedience to any law, imposing taxes upon them, excepting such as were passed by the general assembly of the colony. These resolutions, more especially the last, were warmly opposed by the house of burgesses; but the bold and irresistible eloquence of Henry finally prevailed, and they were passed by a majority of a single voice. In the heat of the debate, the conduct of the king was, for the first time in any public body in America, arraigned; and Patrick Henry, in this, dared to do an act which might have cost him his life. He asserted that the king, in assenting to the act for taxing the colonies, had acted the part of a tyrant; and, alluding to the fate of other tyrants, he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—he was interrupted by the cry of "treason;"—pausing for a moment, he deliberately concluded—"may profit by their example;—if this be treason, make the most of it." The next day, the members were alarmed on considering the bold stand which they had taken; and in the absence of Henry, the fifth resolution was rescinded; but it had already with the others gone forth, and, although at first cautiously circulated, all were at length openly published, and produced the most violent feelings throughout the country.

Before the proceedings in Virginia had become known in Massachusetts, the general court of that colony had assembled, and adopted measures to produce a combined opposition to the oppressive measures of parliament. Letters were addressed to the assemblies of the other colonies, proposing that a congress, composed of deputies from each, should assemble to consult on their common interest. This proposition was not agreed to by all, and indeed it met, at first, a general opposition. Delegates were, however, elected from Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina.

On the first Tuesday in October, which was the day designated by Massachusetts, for the meeting of the congress, the delegates assembled at New-York. Their first measure was to draw up a declaration, in which they asserted that the colonists were entitled to all the rights and privilege of natural born subjects of Great Britain; that the most essential of these were an exclusive right to tax themselves, and the privileges of trial by jury; and that the late acts of parliament, imposing taxes on the inhabitants, without their consent, and extending the jurisdiction of the courts of admiralty, had a manifest tendency to subvert these rights and liberties. The congress then prepared an address to the king, and petitions to both houses of parliament; all of which were designed and calculated

Mass. proposes
a congress.

Oct.
Congress meets
at New-York.

to procure a redress of the grievances, of which they complained. The colonies, which were not represented in this congress, also forwarded to England, petitions, similar to those adopted by that body.

Increase of
popular feeling
against the
stamp act.

As the day approached on which the stamp act was to take effect, the popular feeling against it increased ; nor can this be a matter of astonishment, when it is considered that its tendency was, to oblige the colonies to submit, without a possibility of evasion, to what they considered a degrading surrender of their rights. Had duties been laid on articles of convenience, or luxury, these might have been dispensed with ; but this law was so framed, that the evil intended as a penalty for disobedience, was no less than the suspension of the whole machinery of the social order, and the creation of a state of anarchy. Neither trade nor navigation could proceed ; no contract could be legally made ; no process against an offender could be instituted ; no apprentice could be indented ; no student could receive a diploma ; nor even could the estates of the dead be legally settled, until the stamp duty was paid.

Attempts to pre-
vent its taking
effect.

The object of the irritated Americans, was now to prevent, as much as possible, the promulgation of the obnoxious act ; or, at any rate, to prevent its going into effect.

For this purpose, measures were taken to make the situation of all concerned in its execution so unpleasant, that no one might be found hardy enough to engage as an officer. In accomplishing this object, measures were sometimes taken, from the violence of popular feeling, which were disapproved by the more reflecting. At Boston, in the month of August, the populace, after burning the effigy of Mr. Oliver, the proposed distributor of stamps, assembled at his house, broke his windows, and destroyed his furniture. Mr. Oliver then formally pledged himself to have no concern in the execution of the obnoxious statute. The houses of an officer of the court of admiralty, and of one of the custom-house officers, were entered, and their effects purloined. But the greatest damage was done in the mansion of lieutenant-governor Hutchinson, whose loss in furniture, plate, pictures, and money, was very considerable ; and was a chief item in the claim which Great Britain afterwards made against Massachusetts, for remunerating those who suffered, in attempting to enforce this act of its legislature. In New Haven, Mr. Ingersol was treated much in the same manner as the proposed distributor of stamps in Boston, and, like him, was obliged to declare his resolution not to accept the office. Similar scenes were transacted in other places.

The first of November, the day on which the stamp act was to take effect, was ushered in by the tolling of bells, as for a funeral procession ; and signs of mourning, and sorrow appeared in all the colonies. In New-York, the stamp act was hawked about with a death's head

attached to it, under the title of the "Folly of England and the ruin of America."* The opposition to the law became general and systematic. The women, animated by the spirit of liberty, united with the men in their exertions to prevent the importation of British goods; and cheerfully relinquished every species of ornament, which was manufactured in England. The proceedings of the courts of justice were suspended, in order that no stamps might be used; and those engaged in disputes, were earnestly and effectually exhorted by the leading men, to terminate them by reference.

In the mean time, a change had taken place in the British ministry; the authors of the stamp act had been removed, and their places supplied by those who were supposed to be more favourable to the interests of the colonies. The marquis of Rockingham was made lord of the treasury, and the duke of Grafton and Gen. Conway, secretaries of state. They perceived that measures must be taken, either to repeal the obnoxious statute, or oblige the Americans to submit to it, by force of arms. In January, 1766, the petitions of congress, and other papers relating to the affairs of America, were laid before parliament. After their examination, a resolution was introduced by Gen. Conway, declaring that parliament "had full power to bind the colonies, and people of America, in all cases whatsoever." The question of the right of parliament to tax America thus introduced, occasioned an animated debate in the house of commons, which closed by adopting the resolution of Gen. Conway.

Change in the
British ministry.

1766.

Parliament de-
clares its right to
bind the colo-
nies.

The ministry were now determined to procure a repeal of the stamp act, and an examination and inquiries upon this subject were commenced. Among others, Dr. Franklin was examined before the house of commons. He gave it as his opinion, that the acts of parliament for taxing America, had alienated the affections of the people from the mother country, and that they would never submit to the stamp duty, unless compelled by force of arms. A resolution to repeal this act occasioned another warm debate. Lord Grenville and his adherents, in opposing the claims of the colonists, were answered by Mr. Pitt; who, with all the eloquence for

Stamp act oppo-
sed by parlia-
ment.

* History can hardly maintain her gravity, in relating some of the acts, by which the enraged people manifested, at this time, their deep sense of injury, and their determination not tamely to submit to it. "In Portsmouth, New Hampshire," says Dr. Holmes, "a coffin, neatly ornamented, and inscribed with "LIBERTY, aged CXLV. years," was prepared for the funeral procession, which began from the state house, attended with two unbraced drums. Minute guns were fired until the corpse arrived at the grave, when an oration was pronounced, in honour of the deceased. Scarcely was the oration concluded, when, some remains of life having been discovered, the corpse was taken up. The inscription on the lid of the coffin was changed to LIBERTY REVIVED! The bells suddenly struck a cheerful sound; and joy again appeared in every countenance."

which he was conspicuous, maintained that taxation was no part of the governing or legislative power which parliament had a right to exert over the colonies ; and concluded with a motion, “ that the stamp act be repealed, totally, absolutely, and immediately.”

Stamp act repealed, and declaratory act passed.

The bill for its repeal, at length passed the commons, and was sent to the house of lords, where, after much opposition, it was approved. The cause of the colonies was here ably advocated by Lord Camden.* On the 18th of March, this bill, as well as that declaring the power of parliament to bind the people of America, received the sanction of the king.

The news of the repeal of the stamp act occasioned the most sincere joy throughout the colonies. But while a principle was acknowledged by parliament upon which any future ministry, with the sanction of parliamentary authority, might oppress them, the colonists continued to watch the British government with a jealous eye. This spirit of jealousy soon manifested itself in the northern colonies. Gen. Conway recommended to these colonies to make compensation to those who had suffered in attempting to enforce the stamp act. Gov. Bernard laid this recommendation before the assembly of Massachusetts, as a requisition with which they must of necessity comply. With this they were offended, as it disabled them, they said, from voluntarily granting to the king such favours as he requested. At first they refused to make any compensation to the sufferers, but they finally consented, though in a manner highly displeasing to the British government ; the same act which made the appropriation for the damage, expressing a pardon to those by whom it was done. It has been mentioned, that at the same time with the passage of the stamp act, another was passed, requiring each colony to furnish supplies, at its own expense, for such British troops as should be quartered within its limits. The assembly of New-York, considering such a requisition as an indirect mode of taxing the colonies, refused obedience. The same opposition was also made to this act in New Jersey and Massachusetts.

Change in the British ministry.

In July 1766, another change took place in the British ministry, and a cabinet was formed under the direction of Mr. Pitt, now earl of Chatham. The proceedings of the Americans had given great offence to the British government, and were condemned by many who had heretofore espoused their cause.

* “ My position,” said he, “ is this ; I repeat it, I will maintain it to my last hour—taxation and representation are inseparable. This position is founded on the laws of nature ; it is more—it is itself an eternal law of nature : for whatever is a man’s own is absolutely his own ; no man has a right to take it from him without his consent. Whoever attempts to do it, attempts an injury ; whoever does it, commits a robbery.”

In May, 1767, Charles Townshend, then chancellor of the exchequer, influenced by Lord Grenville, brought into parliament a second plan for taxing America, by imposing duties on all tea, glass, paper, and painters'

1767.
Parliament imposes new taxes.

colours, which should be imported into the colonies. This bill passed both houses of parliament without much opposition. During the same session, two other acts were passed, relating to America; one suspending the authority of the assembly of New-York, until they should comply with the act for quartering troops; and the other, appointing the officers of the navy, as custom-house officers, to enforce the acts of trade and navigation.

These three acts, following each other in quick succession, caused, throughout America, a revival of the same feelings which the passage of the stamp act had produced. In January, 1768, the assembly of Massachusetts prepared a petition to the

1768.
Mass. requests the co-operation of the other colonies.

king, and sent letters to those persons in Great Britain who had been most active in defending the cause of America, again asserting what they considered their rights, and claiming deliverance from those unjust and oppressive taxes, which had been imposed by the recent acts of parliament. They also addressed circulars to the other colonial assemblies, entreating their co-operation, in order to obtain the redress of their grievances. The British ministry viewed this measure as an attempt to convene another congress; and, as they had always dreaded the effects of colonial union, independent of the crown, they instructed Gov. Bernard, to require the assembly to rescind the vote by which circulars were sent to the other colonies; and, in case of their refusal, to dissolve them. At the same time, they addressed letters to the other colonial governors, in order to prevent, if possible, their compliance with the request of Massachusetts. In the assembly of that province, ninety-two, out of one hundred and nine representatives, refused to rescind the vote, or disapprove of their former proceedings, and the governor, in consequence, dissolved the assembly. The measures pursued at this time, by the British government, with the intention of intimidating and dividing the colonies, did but exasperate and arouse them to a more united and determined defence of their liberties.

The assembly of Massachusetts is dissolved.

SECTION II.

THE dissatisfaction of the people of Massachusetts was increased by the attempts made by the new custom-house officers, to execute the duties of their office. In June, they seized a sloop, belonging to John Hancock, an eminent merchant, and distinguished patriot of Boston. This occasioned a riot, in which the officers were insulted and beaten by the populace, and, at last compelled to leave the town.

Mr. Hancock's
sloop seized.

Non-importa-
tion agreements.

During the summer, non-importation agreements were again proposed, with regard to the articles on which duties had been laid; which were extensively adopted by the colonies.

Gov. of Mass.
refuses to call
an assembly.

The assembly of Massachusetts had not convened, since its dissolution by Gov. Bernard. A report was circulated, that troops were ordered to march into Boston; and in consequence of the alarm which it excited, a town meeting was called, and the governor earnestly entreated to convoke the assembly. His reply to this request was "that he could not call another assembly this year without further commands from the king." A convention was then proposed, and accordingly held, on the 22d of September, composed of members from the several towns in the province, to consult on measures proper to be adopted in the present exigency.

Sept. 22.
A convention is
held at Boston.

The convention disclaimed all legislative authority; they petitioned the governor, declaring their pacific intentions, and requesting that an assembly might be called; but he refused; stigmatizing them with the appellation of rebels.

After transmitting to the king an account of their proceedings, and expressing their loyalty, they dissolved, after a session of five days.

In consequence of the perpetual disagreements which arose between the custom-house officers and the people of Boston, and the unyielding spirit displayed by the latter, the king gave orders to Gen. Gage, the commander-in-chief of the troops in the colonies, to station a force in the town to overawe the citizens, and protect the officers in the discharge of their duty. Two regiments were accordingly ordered from Halifax, and escorted by seven armed vessels, they arrived at Bos-

Sept. 28.
Troops are sta-
tioned at Boston.

ton on the 28th of September. The fleet took a station which commanded the town, and the troops having landed under the cover of their guns, marched into Boston without any resistance on the part of the inhabitants.

The select men of the town refusing to provide them with quarters, the governor commanded the state house to be opened for their reception. The presence of the soldiers, had great influence in restraining outward

acts of violence, yet this offensive measure greatly increased the hostile feelings of the people.

The late proceedings in Massachusetts were declared by parliament to be "illegal, unconstitutional, and derogatory to the rights of the crown and parliament." Early in 1769, the news of the steps which were consequently taken, reached the colonies. Both houses, in a joint address to the king, had recommended vigorous measures, in order to enforce their obedience; and had even gone so far as to beseech him to direct the governor of Massachusetts Bay, to make strict inquiries, as to all treasons committed in that province since the year 1767; in order that the persons most active in committing them, might be sent to England for trial.

Offensive measures of parliament.

The time for again convening the legislature of Massachusetts, had not arrived, when the news of this address reached America: but the house of burgesses in Virginia, which met a few days afterwards, was not tardy in expressing their sense of it. They passed several spirited resolutions, declaring their exclusive right to tax themselves, and denying the right of the king to remove an offender out of the colony for trial. An address to his majesty was also agreed on; which stated, in a style of loyalty and real attachment to the crown, the deep conviction of the house of burgesses of Virginia, that the complaints of the colonists were well founded. When the intelligence of these proceedings reached the governor, he suddenly dissolved the assembly. But the current of opposition was too strong to be stayed. The members assembled at a private house; elected their speaker, Peyton Randolph, Esq. moderator; and proceeded to pass resolutions against importing British goods. This example was followed by other colonies; and non-importation agreements, which had before been entered into by Boston, Salem, the city of New-York, and the colony of Connecticut, now became general.

1769.

Proceedings in Virginia.

In May, the assembly of Massachusetts convened. They refused to proceed with business while the state house was surrounded by an armed force. The governor refused to remove it, but adjourned them to Cambridge. Here they expressed, in the most decided manner, their belief that the establishment of a standing army in the colony in time of peace was an invasion of the natural rights of the people. They refused to make any of the appropriations of money which the governor proposed, and he again prorogued them. In August, Gov. Bernard was recalled, and the government left in the hands of lieutenant governor Hutchinson.

Assembly of Mass. convenes, and is adjourned to Cambridge.

On the 5th of March, 1770, some of the inhabitants of Boston insulted the military, while under arms; and an affray took place, in which four persons were killed. The bells were instantly rung; the people rushed from

1770.

March 5.

Affray with the British troops.

the country to the aid of the citizens ; and the soldiers were obliged to retire to Castle William, in order to avoid the fury of the enraged multitude. A trial was instituted : the soldiers engaged in the affray were all acquitted, except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter. The moderation of the jury, and the ability with which the soldiers were defended by two of the leading opposers of British aggression, John Adams and Josiah Quincy, were honourable to the individuals, and to their country. This event, however, increased the detestation in which the soldiers, stationed among the people, were held.

In January the parliament of Great Britain assembled, and Lord North was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the place of the duke of Grafton, who had resigned. A bill introduced by Lord North, passed on the 12th of April, removing the duties which had been laid in 1767, excepting those on tea. But, as had been predicted by those who opposed this partial removal, the people of America were not satisfied, while parliament claimed the *right* of taxing the colonies.

Duties removed,
except on teas.

1772.

Town meetings
held in Mass.

So severely was the exercise of the unjust authority of parliament felt by Massachusetts, that, at length, in 1772, meetings were held in the towns throughout the province, where committees were appointed to maintain a correspondence with each other. These meetings, the nurseries of independence, were censured by Great Britain as being the hot-beds of treason and rebellion.

Schr. Gaspee de-
stroyed in R. I.

In Rhode Island, a daring resistance was made against the encroachments of Great Britain in the destruction of the Gaspee, an armed schooner which had been stationed in that colony, for the purpose of enforcing the acts of trade.

As Massachusetts appeared to have felt more directly than the other colonies, the oppressive measures of parliament, so she had of late been more bold and determined in her opposition. Yet, throughout America, a spirit prevailed among the leading patriots, which would have led them all to support that colony, in which any infringement on their common rights should be made. In accordance with a resolution passed

1773.

A correspond-
ence is establish-
ed between the
colonies.

by the house of burgesses in Virginia, in 1773, a correspondence was now maintained between the colonies, on the important subject of their rights, which had a happy influence in harmonizing their measures.

Attempts to ex-
port tea to the
colonies.

The effects of the non-importation agreements which had been made in the colonies, and which had been rigidly observed, in respect to the article of tea, now began to effect the commercial interests of Great Britain ; and, by an act of parliament, in 1773, the East India company was allowed to export its teas free of all duties in England ; being thus enabled to reduce

the price of the article in the colonies. Tea was accordingly shipped in large quantities to different ports of America. It was obvious to the colonists, that if the tea should be landed, the duty must be paid, and that if it should once be received on shore, it would be extremely difficult to hinder its sale.

Resolutions were therefore extensively adopted, that the tea should not be landed, but sent back to England in the same vessels in which it had been brought out. At Philadelphia the pilots were enjoined not to conduct the ships into the river. At New-York the governor ordered some of the tea to be landed, under the protection of a man of war, but he was obliged to deliver it into the custody of the people who took care that none of it should be sold.

The people of Boston found great difficulty in adhering to their determination, that the cargoes of the three ships destined for that port, should not be landed. They forced those to whom the tea had been consigned, (most of whom were the friends of the governor,) to give up their appointments. The captains of the vessels, alarmed at the menaces of the people, offered to return with their cargoes; but the merchants to whom they had been consigned, the collector, and the governor refused to grant the necessary discharges, and the ships were obliged to remain in the harbour. The people, however, apprehensive that the obnoxious commodity would be landed in small quantities, if the vessels should continue in the neighbourhood of the town, resolved to destroy it at once. For this purpose, several disguised themselves as Indians, boarded the ships during the night, and threw their cargoes into the water, without making any further disturbance. No fewer than three hundred and forty-two chests were thus broken open, and their contents emptied into the sea.

Tea thrown
overboard at
Boston.

When the news of these transactions reached the parliament of England, they resolved "to make such provisions as should secure the just dependence of the colonies, and a due obedience to the laws, throughout all the British dominions." In order to punish the inhabitants of Boston, in an exemplary manner, and oblige them to restore the value of the tea which had been destroyed, a bill was passed in March, 1774, "interdicting all commercial intercourse with the port of Boston, and prohibiting the landing and shipping of any goods at that place," until these ends should be accomplished. The chartered privileges of Massachusetts were invaded by an act, giving to the crown, a power previously residing in the court—that of appointing counsellors; and also prohibiting the meetings in the towns, except for the purpose of electing officers. In order to secure the execution of laws, which they knew must be obnoxious, and which, it was appre-

1774.

Parliament
shuts the port of
Boston, and
otherwise dis-
tresses the co-
lonies.

hended, would occasion riots, parliament provided that any person, indicted for murder, or any capital offence, committed in aiding the magistracy, might be sent to another colony, or to Great Britain, for trial. With a view still farther to limit the rights and liberties of the colonies, an act was passed, extending the province of Quebec to the river Ohio: and, in order more effectually to provide for its government, a legislative council was formed, who were to be appointed by the crown, for directing the affairs of the province, except those relating to taxation. Trials without a jury were also to be permitted.

General Gage was made governor of Massachusetts in the place of Hutchinson, who had been removed from his office, on a petition made by the people, in consequence of the exposure of letters which had been written by him, during the years 1767 and 1768, to the leading men of Great Britain, which tended greatly to increase the prejudice of parliament against the colonies, and widen the breach which already existed between them.

On the arrival of the port bill in Boston, a meeting of the inhabitants was held, who declared that the “impolicy, injustice, and inhumanity of the act exceeded their powers of expression!” The assembly convened at this place, but was removed by the governor to Salem. It was here resolved, that the present state of the colonies made it necessary, that a congress, composed of delegates from all the colonies, should assemble, to take their affairs into the most serious consideration.

They nominated James Bowdoin, Thomas Cushing, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, men celebrated for their talents and opposition to oppression, as the representatives to such a congress from Massachusetts; and directed the speaker of the house, to inform the other colonies of their resolution.

The governor, having learned their proceedings, sent an officer to dissolve the assembly, in the king’s name: but, being unable to obtain admittance, he was compelled to read the order of dissolution aloud on the staircase. The order was not obeyed, until the members had finished their most important business.

Gov. Gage had anticipated that the advantages arising to the trade of Salem, from shutting up the port of Boston, would render the inhabitants more favourable to the royal government; but the people of that town declared, “that nature, in forming their harbour, had prevented their becoming rivals in trade; and that, even if it were otherwise, they should regard themselves lost to every idea of justice, and all feelings of humanity, could they indulge one thought of seizing upon the wealth of their neighbours, or raising their fortunes upon the ruins of their countrymen.”

The cause of Boston was espoused by all the colonies. The inhabitants were supplied by contributions from all quarters. Even those, who by their station seemed likely to derive advantage from the cessation of their trade, were most forward to relieve them in their distress. The people of Marblehead, a town at no great distance, generously offered them the use of their harbour, their wharves, and warehouses, free of all expense.

The cause of Boston is espoused by all the colonies.

The first of June, the day on which the port bill was to take effect, was observed, in Virginia, as a day of fasting, humiliation, and prayer, devoutly to implore that God would avert the evils which threatened them, and “give them one heart, and one mind, firmly to oppose, by all just and proper means, every injury to the American rights.”

SECTION III.

THE resolution adopted by the assembly of Massachusetts, with respect to a general congress, received the approbation of the other colonies ; and on the 4th of September, 1774, the congress assembled at Philadelphia.

1774.

A continental congress assembles at Philadelphia.

In this body, the most august and important which had ever assembled upon the American shores, all the colonies, except Georgia, were represented,* and all parties, struck with the array of splendid talents and stern patriotism, which a view of the catalogue of its members presented, looked forward to the result of their deliberations with deep interest and great expectation ; the people with hope, but the officers and dependents of the crown, with alarm and apprehension.

Their first measure was to choose, by a unanimous vote, Peyton Randolph, Esq. of Virginia, as president. They next determined, that, as they could not ascertain the relative importance of each colony, each should have one vote. They also determined that their deliberations should proceed with closed doors. They next chose a committee of two from each colony, to *state the rights* of the colonies in general, the several instances in which these rights had been infringed, and the means of obtaining redress. They expressed their approbation of the conduct of the people of Massachusetts, exhorted them to persevere in the cause of freedom, with decision, yet with temperance ; and voted the continuance of the contributions from all the colonies, for their relief. Being informed

They approve of the conduct of Massachusetts.

* See Appendix L.

that Gen. Gage was erecting fortifications around Boston, and prohibiting the citizens from a free communication, they addressed a letter to that general, entreating him to desist from military operations; lest a difference, altogether irreconcilable, should arise between the colonies and the parent state.

They draw a declaration of their rights, and concert measures to obtain redress.

The committee chosen, next reported an important instrument, setting forth the rights of the colonies, in form of resolutions, which being accepted, was addressed to the people, and is commonly quoted by the title of the “Bill of Rights.”*

The last of these resolutions stated the result of the best wisdom of congress as to the means most likely to obtain the peaceable redress of grievances. First, to enter into a non-importation association. Second, to prepare an address to the people of Great Britain, and a memorial to the inhabitants of British America. Third, to prepare a loyal address to his majesty.

Non-importation compact.

By the non-importation compact, they agreed and associated, for themselves and their constituents, “under the sacred ties of virtue, honour, and love of liberty,” not to import, or use any British goods, after the first of December, 1774, particularly the articles of tea and molasses. At the same time, they agreed to encourage agriculture, arts, and manufactures in America. Committees were to be appointed in every place, to see that this agreement was observed; and those who violated it, were to be denounced as enemies to the rights of their country.

Resolution of congress against the slave trade.

It is worthy of remark, that these great men in the pressure of their own particular difficulties, did not forget the cause of suffering humanity, but made, with the other resolutions, one by which they bound themselves not to be, in any way, concerned in the slave trade.

Finally, they determined to continue this association, until the repeal of the obnoxious acts of parliament, concerning oppressive duties; of the laws, restricting their rights respecting trial by jury; of the acts, oppressing the people of Massachusetts; and of that for extending the limits of the province of Quebec.

In the several addresses, which, conformably to their resolutions, were drawn up and promulgated, congress fully met the high expectations which were entertained of that august body; of whom Lord Chatham declared, “that, though he had studied and admired the free states of antiquity, the master spirits of the world, yet, for solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conclusion, no body of men could stand in preference to this congress.” The addresses were couched in terms, which, though strongly calculated to awaken

* See Appendix M.

the sympathy, were, at the same time, powerful to convince the reason. They were not the whining complaints of beaten children, who murmur and submit; but the firm remonstrance of injured and indignant men willing to ask for their rights, but determined to have them.

The petition to the king entreated him, in language the most respectful and affectionate, to restore their violated rights. Their grievances, they said, were the more intolerable, as they were born heirs of freedom, and had enjoyed it under the auspices of his royal ancestors. "The apprehension," say they, "of being degraded into a state of servitude from the pre-eminent rank of English freemen, while our minds retain the strongest love of liberty, and clearly foresee the miseries preparing for us and our posterity, excites emotions in our breasts which we cannot describe." They express a hope, that the royal indignation will fall on those designing and dangerous men, who, by their misrepresentations of his American subjects, had, at length, compelled them, by the force of accumulated injuries, too severe to be longer borne, thus to disturb his majesty's repose: a conduct, extorted from those, who would much more willingly bleed in his service. "We ask," say they, "for peace, liberty, and safety. We wish not a diminution of the royal prerogative, nor do we solicit the grant of any new right in our favour." The petition concludes with an earnest prayer, that his majesty, as the father of his whole people, would not permit the ties of blood, of law, and loyalty to be broken, "in uncertain expectation of effects, that if obtained, never can compensate for the calamities, through which they must be gained."*

They petition
the king.

In their address to the people of England, they claim the rights of fellow subjects. "Be not surprised," they say, "that we, whose forefathers participated in the rights, the liberties, and the constitution, of which you so justly boast, and have carefully conveyed the same fair inheritance to us, guaranteed by the plighted faith of government and the most solemn compact with British sovereigns, should refuse to surrender them to men, who found their claims on no principles of reason, and who prosecute them with a design, that, by having their lives and property in their power, they may, with the greater facility, enslave you. Are not," they ask, "the proprietors of the soil of Great Britain, lords of their own property? Can it be taken from them without their consent? Will they yield it to the arbitrary disposal of any man, or number of men, whatever? You know they will not. Why, then, are the proprietors of America less lords of their property than you are of yours? or why should they sub-

They address
the people of
England.

* The committee who brought in this address, were Mr. Lee, Mr. John Adams, Mr. Johnston, Mr. Henry, and Mr. Rutledge. The original composition has been generally attributed to Mr. Lee.

mit it to the disposal of your parliament, or council, or any other parliament in the world, not of their own election? Can the intervention of the sea that divides us, cause disparity of rights? or can any reason be given, why English subjects, who live three thousand miles from the royal palace, should enjoy less liberty than those who are three hundred miles from it?*

Prepare a memorial to their constituents.

In the memorial to their constituents, they presented an account of the oppressive measures of parliament since 1763. They applauded the spirit which they had shown in defence of their rights, and encourage them to persevere, and be prepared for all contingencies; hinting that those might occur which would put their constancy severely to the test. The congress rose on the 6th of October

The proceedings of congress are approved.

Although their powers were merely advisory, yet their decisions received the approbation of the colonial assemblies, and carried with them all the force of laws.

Whigs and Tories.

Complete unanimity, however, did not exist. Some of the late emigrants, on whom England had bestowed offices, and many who feared her power, clung to her authority, and declared themselves her adherents. Whigs and Tories, were the distinguishing names of the parties. The former favoured the cause of the colonists; the latter, that of Great Britain.

In the meantime, the magazines of gunpowder and other military stores, at Charlestown and Cambridge, were seized, by order of Gen. Gage, who continued the fortifications on Boston Neck.

Oct.

The assembly of Mass. resolve themselves into a provincial congress, and prepare for war.

An assembly was called in Massachusetts; but its sittings were immediately countermanded by the governor. The representatives then met at Salem; and after waiting a day for the arrival of the governor, they resolved themselves into a "provincial congress," and adjourned to Concord. John Hancock was chosen president. The governor warned them to desist from such illegal proceedings; but, paying no regard to his injunction, they resolved that, for the defence of the province, a number of the inhabitants should be enlisted, to stand ready to march at a minute's warning. They elected three general officers, to command these minute-men and the militia, provided they should be called to action—appointed a committee of supplies, and a committee of safety, to sit during their recess. Meeting again in November, they resolved that one fourth of the militia should act as minute-men, with the addition of two general officers; and sent persons

* The committee who prepared this address, were Mr. Lee, Mr. Livingston, and Mr. Jay, who also prepared the memorial to their constituents. The composition has generally been attributed to Mr. Jay.

to inform New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, of their measures, and request their co-operation, in order to raise an army of 20,000 men, to act in any emergency.

The same spirit was manifest in the southern colonies, particularly in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland. Conventions were held, and resolutions passed, designed to animate the people of Massachusetts, who were exposed to more immediate danger.

The southern colonies adopt similar measures.

On the 20th of November, the British parliament convened. The king, in his speech, informed the members, that a most daring resistance to the laws, still prevailed in Massachusetts, which was encouraged by unlawful combinations in the other colonies; and, finally, he expressed his firm determination to withstand any attempt to weaken or impair the royal authority; and in these sentiments, the two houses expressed, in their answer, a decided concurrence. Perceiving, from these expressions, the temper of the British government, Mr. Quincy, who had been sent over as general agent for the colonies, wrote to Dr. Reed, in Philadelphia, warning him not to entertain the idea that their commercial plans would be the engines of their freedom; and telling him that he wrote with the feelings of one who believes that his countrymen must yet seal their faith and constancy to their liberties with blood."

Proceedings of parliament.

When the British ministry, after considerable delay, at length brought the American papers before parliament, Lord Chatham, with all the energies of his gigantic mind, took the field of debate, in favour of America.* But such were the prejudices then existing, that notwithstanding the force of his arguments, and the weight of his name, a plan, which he brought before parliament, for conciliatory measures, was

* "The way," he said, "must be immediately opened for reconciliation. It will soon be too late. His majesty may indeed wear his crown; but, the American jewel out of it, it will not be worth the wearing. They say, you have no right to tax them, without their consent.—They say truly. Representation and taxation must go together—they are inseparable. Yet there is scarcely a man in our streets, though so poor as scarcely to be able to get his daily bread, but thinks he is the legislator of America. 'Our American subjects,' is a common phrase in the mouths of the lowest orders of our citizens: but property, my lords, is the sole and entire dominion of the owner: it excludes all the world besides the owner. None can intermeddle with it. It is an unity—a mathematical point. It is an atom; untangible by any but the proprietor. Touch it, and the owner loses his whole property. The touch contaminates the whole mass, the whole property vanishes. This wise people speak out. They do not hold the language of slaves; they tell you what they mean. They do not ask you to repeal your laws, as a favour; they claim it as a right—they demand it. They tell you, they will not submit to them; and I tell you, the acts must be repealed. Repeal, therefore, my lords, I say. But bare repeal will not satisfy this enlightened and spirited people. You must go through the work; you must declare you have no right to tax—they may trust you—then they will have some confidence in you."

1775.

Conciliatory
measures propo-
sed by Lord
Chatham.

negatived by a large majority ; while the petitions from the merchants of London, and other commercial places, in favour of America, were referred, not to the regular committee, but to one, called by the friends of the colonies, the *committee of oblivion*, whose meeting was referred to a distant day. Dr. Franklin, and the other colonial agents, were refused a hearing before the house, on the plea, that they were appointed by an illegal assembly ; and thus was put to silence the voice of three millions of people, yet in the attitude of humble suppliants. Both houses of parliament concurred, by a large majority, in an address to the king, in which they declare, “ That the Americans had long wished to become independent ; and only waited for ability and opportunity, to accomplish their design. To prevent this,” they said, “ and to crush the monster in its birth, was the duty of every Englishman ; and that this must be done, at any price, and at every hazard.” In the course of the debates, the Americans were branded with the epithets of cowards and paltroons ; and some, pretending to be well acquainted with their character, declared them “ incapable of military discipline, or exertion, and that a small force would reduce them to obedience.”

Colonies refused
a hearing in par-
liament.

On the 10th of February, a bill was passed, whose manifest tendency was to divide the colonies, by treating some with severity, and showing favour to others.

Some of the co-
lonies are re-
stricted in their
trade & fisheries.

The colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, were restricted in their trade to Great Britain, and its West India possessions, and were also prohibited from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. The same restrictions were soon after extended to all the colonies, excepting New-York and Pennsylvania. It was expected that these prohibitions would prove particularly distressing to the inhabitants of New England, as an idea prevailed, that, as they depended on the fisheries for their subsistence, they would, if deprived of them, be starved into obedience.

While these measures were in progress, certain individuals in England, of high respectability, were endeavouring, in conjunction with Dr. Franklin, whose society, for this purpose, they courted, to fall upon some plan, to which both parties would agree, and thus prevent the contest which now appeared to approach. But the result of these secret negotiations, shows clearly that so wide was the difference of opinion in England and America, respecting the rights and duties of the latter, that a war was inevitable, as no plan of adjustment could be devised, to which both parties would agree. Yet, while parliament were engaged in augmenting the naval and military force from the avowed cause, that they were in a state of rebellion, Lord North brought in an

artful and insidious bill, calculated to blind and divide the people of America. He called it a conciliatory plan; and, after considerable debate, it was adopted.

Lord North's conciliatory proposition rejected by the colonies.

Its purport was, that Great Britain should forbear to tax the colonies, on their agreeing to tax themselves. The money raised, to be at the disposal of the British parliament. This plan, when brought before the colonial assemblies, and finally referred by them, to congress, was pronounced, not only insidious, but unreasonable and unsatisfactory; for it was, in effect, to oblige themselves to give the thing, over which they claimed a right, to purchase the mere name of possessing that right.

In the mean time, affairs in America were tending to a crisis, which would preclude all hope of reconciliation. A second provincial congress had assembled in Massachusetts, had ordered military stores to be collected, and encouraged the militia and minute-men to perfect themselves in the use of arms.

Gen. Gage had learned that a number of field pieces were collected at Salem; and, on the 26th of February, he despatched a party of soldiers, to take possession of

Gage attempts to destroy stores at Salem.

them, in the name of the king. The people of Salem assembled in great numbers, and, pulling up a drawbridge, over which it was necessary for the military to pass, before entering the town, prevented the accomplishment of their purpose.

The next attempt of the same kind was followed by more interesting consequences. The provincials had deposited a large quantity of ammunition and stores at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston; these Gen. Gage resolved to seize, or destroy; and, with that view, on the 18th of April, he sent a detachment of 800 men, under the command of Col. Smith and Maj. Pitcairn, ordering them to proceed with the utmost expedition, and with all possible secrecy.

Notwithstanding his care, and the alacrity of the soldiers, the provincials had notice of his design; and when the British troops arrived at Lexington, within five miles of Concord, the militia of the place were drawn up on the parade, and ready to receive them. The advanced

April 19.
Battle of Lexington; the commencement of war.

body of the regulars approached within musket shot, when Maj. Pitcairn, riding forward, exclaimed, "Disperse, you rebels!—throw down your arms and disperse." Not being instantly obeyed, he discharged his pistol, and ordered his men to fire. They fired, and killed eight men. The militia dispersed, but the firing continued. The detachment then proceeded to Concord; and destroyed, or took possession of the stores. Having effected their purpose, the British began to retire; but the colonists, pressing upon them on all sides, they retreated to Lexington, where they met Lord Percy, with a reinforcement of 900

men. In consequence of this, they quitted Lexington, and continued their march towards Boston, which they reached the day after, though not without frequent interruption, and very great difficulty. The Americans being better acquainted with the grounds, possessed a great advantage over the British, which they improved to the utmost, in harassing their retreat. From every place of concealment—a stone fence, a cluster of bushes, or a barn, the concealed provincials poured upon them a destructive fire. At sunset, the regulars, almost overcome with fatigue, passed Charlestown Neck, and found, on Bunker's Hill, a resting place for the night ; and the next morning, under the protection of a man of war, they entered Boston.

The affair of Lexington, where the first blood was spilled, has justly been considered as the commencement of the American war. In the retreat from that place, the British lost 273 killed, wounded, and missing ; and the provincials, eighty-eight.

The intelligence of the battle of Lexington spreading rapidly through the colonies, caused a deep sensation. Through all the country the cry was “to arms.” An army of 20,000 men soon collected in the neighbourhood of Boston. Gen. Gage had, however, fortified the town so strongly, that, numerous as they were, the provincials durst not attempt it by assault. On the other hand, the governor was too weak to contend with them in the field.

The possession of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on which depended the command of lakes George and Champlain, was an object of essential importance. Accordingly, some gentlemen of Connecticut borrowed, on their individual credit, eighteen hundred dollars from the legislature of the colony, to enable them to undertake the enterprise. As success depended on secrecy and despatch, they resolved not to wait for the sanction of congress, confident that the number of men necessary for the expedition, might be raised among the hardy mountaineers, inhabiting the country that bordered the lakes. About forty volunteers set out from Connecticut, towards Bennington, where the authors of the expedition proposed meeting with Col. Ethan Allen ; and engaging him to head their enterprise. Col. Allen readily entered into their views, and met them with 230 Vermont volunteers, at Castleton. The next day, he was joined by Benedict Arnold, of Connecticut who, upon the first alarm, had repaired to Boston ; and having conceived the same project, had been authorized by the committee of safety in Massachusetts, to undertake it.

They reached lake Champlain, opposite Ticonderoga, on the 9th of May. Arnold and Allen embarked with the first body of troops, consisting of eighty-three men, landed at dawn of day, and completely surprised the fortress. The approach of a hostile force was so unex-

20,000 militia
collect near
Boston.

May.

Expedition
against Crown
Point and Ticon-
deroga.

pected to De La Place, the commander, that he knew not from what quarter they were ; and, when summoned to surrender, he demanded by what authority :—" In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," said Allen. De La Place, incapable of making any resistance, delivered up the garrison, which consisted of only three officers and forty-four privates.

Ticonderoga
surrenders to Al-
len and Arnold.

The remainder of the troops having landed, Col. Seth Warner was despatched with a small party against Crown Point, of which he took possession, without opposition. Arnold, having manned and armed a small schooner, found in South Bay, captured a sloop of war, lying at the outlet of the lake. The pass of Skeensborough was seized at the same time, by a detachment of volunteers from Connecticut.

Col. Warner
takes possession
of Crown Point.

Thus were obtained, without bloodshed, these important posts ; and the command of the lakes on which they stood, together with one hundred pieces of cannon, and other munitions of war. The successes with which this expedition was crowned, greatly tended to raise the confidence which the Americans felt in themselves.

SECTION IV.

THE continental congress again assembled at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May, and Mr. Hancock was chosen president. Though the delegates were all animated with a determined spirit of opposition to parliamentary taxation, it was the prevailing sentiment, in the middle and southern colonies, that a reconciliation with England might still be effected. For this object it was determined to address, once more, a humble and dutiful petition to the king ; but, as no great confidence could be placed in its success, it was unanimously determined to put the country in a state of defence. Bills of credit to the amount of \$3,000,000, were issued for defraying the expenses of the war ; and the faith of the *Twelve United Colonies* pledged for their redemption. They unanimously resolved not to export any provisions to those colonies which had not deputed members to congress.

1775.

May.

Congress again
assembles ; peti-
tions the king,
&c.

In April, Lord Dunmore, the governor of Virginia, on plea of an insurrection in a neighbouring county, caused some powder to be seized, by night, from the magazine belonging to the colony, at Williamsburgh, and conveyed on board an armed schooner, then lying in James river.

April.

Dunmore forced
by Patrick Hen-
ry, to make re-
stitution for
powder.

This act of the governor caused great excitement in the province, especially, as, at their request, he refused to restore the powder. Patrick Henry immediately assembled an independent company, in the county in which he resided, and was marching towards the capital, to obtain it by force, when he was met by a messenger from the governor, who paid him the full value of the powder. Henry and his party immediately returned to their homes. Lord Dunmore, having fortified his palace, issued a proclamation, declaring them rebels, which highly offended the people, with whom this act of their favourite leader was particularly popular. Perceiving, however, that a spirit of revolt prevailed, the governor became apprehensive of personal danger, and retired on board the *Fowey*, man of war, then lying at Yorktown, thus abdicating the government of the colony.

He abdicates his
government.

In North Carolina, Governor Martin was obliged to take refuge on board a ship of war in Cape Fear river.

South Carolina had always resisted parliamentary taxation, and the governor, Lord William Campbell, sought personal safety by retiring from the province.

New-York contained many advocates for freedom; yet such was the affection of some for the royal cause, that they declined choosing delegates to Congress, in May, 1775; but the majority were actuated by different feelings. Accordingly, a convention was chosen for the sole purpose of electing members, who should represent that province in the grand council of the colonies.

May. About the latter end of May, the British army in Boston, receiving a powerful reinforcement from England, under generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, martial law was proclaimed, and pardon offered to all who would return to their allegiance, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock; but this, like every other measure designed to intimidate or divide, served only to unite the Americans in one common feeling of indignation, and consequently increase their courage and activity.

British troops
arrive in Bos-
ton.

The movements of the British army excited an apprehension that Gen. Gage intended to penetrate into the country. It was therefore recommended by the provincial congress to the council of war, to take effectual measures to annoy them in their present situation.

June 15. For this purpose a detachment of 1,000 men, under Colonel Prescott, was ordered, on the night of the 16th of June, 1775, to throw up a breastwork on Bunker's Hill, near Charlestown. By some mistake, the troops entrenched themselves on Breed's Hill, nearer to Boston. They proceeded with such silence and activity, that by return of light they had nearly completed a strong redoubt, without being discovered.

Americans forti-
fy themselves on
Breed's Hill.

At the dawn of the morning, however, the British, discovering the advance of the Americans, commenced a severe cannonade from the ships in the river, but this not interrupting them, a body of about 3,000 men, under generals Howe and Pigot, left Boston in boats, and landed under the protection of the shipping in Charlestown, at the extreme point of the peninsula, and advanced against the Americans. Generals Clinton and Burgoyne took their station on an eminence in Boston, commanding a distinct view of the hill. The spires of the churches, the roofs of the houses, and every height which commanded a view of the battle ground, were covered with spectators, taking deep and opposite interests in the conflict. The Americans waited in silence the approach of their enemy, until they were within ten rods of the redoubt. Then taking a steady aim, and having advantage of the ground, they poured upon them a deadly fire. The British were thrown into confusion, and many of their officers were killed. They were twice repulsed, yet they again rallied and advanced towards the fortifications. The redoubt was attacked on three sides at once. The ammunition of the colonists began to fail. In this situation courage was no longer of any avail, and Col. Prescott, who commanded the redoubt, ordered a retreat. They were obliged to pass Charlestown Neck, where they were exposed to a galling fire from the ships in the harbour.

June 17.
Battle of Bunker's Hill.

During the engagement, the town of Charlestown, which is separated from Boston by a narrow sheet of water, was set on fire, and the houses being chiefly wood, the whole town was soon reduced to ashes.

In this engagement, 3,000 men, composing the flower of the British army, were engaged, and high encomiums were bestowed on the resolution they manifested. Their killed and wounded amounted to one thousand and fifty-four. Notwithstanding the danger of their retreat over Charlestown Neck, the loss of the Americans was only four hundred and fifty men. Among the killed was General Joseph Warren, a gentleman greatly beloved and regretted. Although the ground was lost, the Americans claimed the victory; and it was universally asked how many more such triumphs the British army could afford? The boldness with which the undisciplined troops of the colonies so long withstood the charges of the regulars, increased their confidence, and convinced the English that they had to contend with a resolute foe.

On the fifteenth of June, congress, still in session, elected, by a unanimous vote, George Washington, who was then present, and had from their first meeting at Philadelphia, been a delegate from Virginia, to the high office of general and commander-in-chief of the army of the United Colonies. The members from the north had generously resolved, in order to attach the south more firmly to the confederacy, to fix upon a

June 15.
George Washington elected com.-in-chief.

southern commander; but in their selection of a man, they seem to have been guided by a wisdom, which seemed, as far as human foresight can go, to penetrate into futurity. Although Washington had executed well whatever he had been called to perform, yet this had been too little to decide from what he had already achieved, that he possessed the talents to sustain a situation so difficult, so responsible, and so perilous. Yet the correctness and clearness of his judgment, the loftiness of his sentiments, the calm benignity of his manner, his habits of industry and punctuality, and above all, the commanding dignity of his person, deportment, and mental character, were traits in which these wise men saw the elements of his future greatness; and they fearlessly entrusted him with the destinies of their country. When his appointment was signified to him by the president of the congress, he appeared deeply penetrated with a mingled sense of the high honour which he had received, and the responsibility of the station to which he was raised. In attempting to fill it, he declared that he acted not from the dictates of his own judgment, which led him to fear that his talents and military experience might not be adequate to the discharge of his duty; yet, such as they were, he felt bound to devote them to his country, in whatever manner the public will directed. He declined all compensation for his services, allowing congress to do no more than discharge the expenses attendant on his public career.

Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, Col. Lee, formerly a British officer, Philip Schuyler, of New-York, and Israel Putnam, then before Boston, were at the same time appointed to the rank of major generals; and Horatio Gates to that of adjutant general.

He joins the army at Cambridge. — Soon after his election, Washington set out for the camp at Cambridge. He found the American army, consisting of 14,000 men, posted on the heights around Boston, forming a line which extended from Roxbury on the right, to the river Mystic on the left, a distance of twelve miles. The British forces occupied Bunker's and Breed's Hill, and Boston Neck. This disposition of the troops greatly distressed the British, who were confined to Boston, and often obliged to risk their lives to obtain the means of sustenance.

Gen. Washington, in taking a view of the situation in which he found himself placed by his appointment, perceived, that although he had a people to support him, ardent in the cause of liberty, and ready to engage in the most desperate enterprises, yet there were many evils to be encountered; among the chief of which were a want of discipline and military subordination among the troops. The officers, in many instances, were chosen by the soldiers from among their own number, and hence were not considered their superiors. The army were scantily supplied with arms and

Difficulties to be encountered.

ammunition, and their operations retarded, by a want of skilful engineers; while the interference of congressional and colonial authorities made it more difficult to find securities for these evils. Nevertheless, he set himself to the work with alacrity and perseverance, making judicious arrangements and divisions in the army, disciplining the troops, and employing some of the most active in the duties of artillerists; and such were his exertions, that in a short time the army was organized, and fit to take the field.

He organizes
the army.

On the 6th of July, congress published a solemn and dignified declaration, in the form of a manifesto, setting forth the imperative reasons which had led the nation to take up arms. This instrument, which was to be published from the pulpit, and in orders to the army, declared, "We are reduced to the alternative of choosing an unconditional submission to the tyranny of irritated ministers, or resistance by force. The latter is our choice. We have counted the cost of this contest, and find nothing so dreadful as voluntary slavery. Honour, justice, and humanity forbid us tamely to surrender that freedom which we received from our gallant ancestors, and which our innocent posterity have a right to receive from us. Our cause is just, our union is perfect, our internal resources are great; and, if necessary, foreign assistance is undoubtedly attainable.—With hearts fortified with these animating reflections, we most solemnly, before God and the world, declare, that, exerting the utmost energy of those powers, which our beneficent Creator hath graciously bestowed on us, the arms we have been compelled by our enemies to assume, we will, in defiance of every hazard, with unabating firmness and perseverance, employ for the preservation of our liberties; being with one mind resolved, to die freemen, rather than to live slaves."

July.
Congress publishes a
manifesto.

In July, Georgia entered into the opposition made to the claims of the British parliament to tax America, and chose delegates to congress; after which, the style of "the Thirteen United Colonies" was assumed, and by that title the English provinces, confederated, and in arms, were thenceforth designated.

Georgia joins
the confederacy.

During this session of congress also, the first line of posts for the communication of intelligence through the United States, was established. Benjamin Franklin was appointed, by a unanimous vote, postmaster-general, with power to appoint as many deputies as he might deem proper and necessary, for the conveyance of the mail from Falmouth, in Maine, to Savannah, in Georgia.

First line of
posts.

SECTION V.

WHILE the British army was closely blockaded in Boston, without the power of annoying the surrounding country, congress conceived the design of sending a force into Canada; as the movements of Sir Guy Carleton, the governor of that province, seemed to threaten an invasion of the northwestern frontier. Two expeditions were accordingly organized and despatched, one by the way of Champlain, under General Schuyler, of New-York, the other by the way of the river Kennebeck, under the command of Arnold. General Lee, with 1,200 volunteers from Connecticut, was also directed to repair to New-York, and with the aid of the inhabitants, fortify the city, and the Highlands on the Hudson river.

In pursuance of the plan of guarding the northern frontier by taking Canada, generals Schuyler and Montgomery, with two regiments of New-York militia, and a body of New England men, amounting in the whole to about 2,000, were ordered to move towards Ticonderoga, which had remained in possession of the Americans since the expedition of colonels Arnold and Allen.

Brigadier General Montgomery was ordered to proceed in advance, with the troops then in readiness, and lay siege to St. Johns, the first British post in Canada, about 115 miles north of Ticonderoga. General Schuyler soon followed, and on arriving at the Isle Aux Noix, twelve miles south of St. Johns, sent circular letters to the Canadians, exhorting them to arouse and assert their liberties, declaring that the Americans entered their country as friends and protectors, not as enemies. The intelligence received of the situation of St. Johns, determined them to wait at the Isle Aux Noix, for their remaining troops and artillery. Gen. Schuyler returned to Albany to hasten their departure, and being prevented from again joining the army, the chief command devolved on Montgomery. On receiving the reinforcement he invested St. Johns, but being almost destitute of battering cannon and of powder, he made no progress in the siege.

Sept.
Colonel Allen
makes an at-
tempt on Mon-
treal.

Colonel Allen, the hero of Ticonderoga, had a command under General Montgomery; and was sent by him with about 80 men, to secure a party of hostile Indians. Col. Allen, having effected his object, was returning to head quarters, when he was met by Major Brown, who, with a party, had been on a tour into the country, to observe the dispositions of the people, and attach them, if possible, to the American cause. It was agreed between them, to make a descent on Montreal

They divided into two parties, intending to assail the city at two opposite points. Allen crossed the river in the night, as had been proposed; but, by some means, Brown and his party failed. Instead of returning, Allen, with great rashness, determined to maintain his ground. In the morning, the British general, Carleton, at the head of a few regulars, and several hundred militia, marched to attack him. Allen, with his little band of eighty, fought with desperate courage; but he was compelled to yield, and he and his brave associates were instantly loaded with irons, and in that condition sent to England.

On the 13th of October, a small fort at Chamblé, which was but slightly guarded, was taken. Several pieces of artillery, and about 120 barrels of gunpowder, were the fruits of this victory; which enabled Gen. Montgomery to proceed with vigour against St. John's. In defiance of the continual fire of the enemy, the Americans erected a battery near fort St. John's, and made preparations for a severe cannonade, and an assault, if necessary.

Fort Chamble
taken.

Gen. Carleton, on learning the situation of St. Johns, raised a force of 800 men for its relief, and proceeded to Longueil. Col. Warner, who was stationed at this place with 300 mountaineers, and a small piece of artillery, kept up a warm fire upon his boats, which effectually prevented his landing, and compelled him to return to Montreal.

Gen. Carleton is
repulsed at Lon-
gueil.

When the news of this repulse reached Montgomery, he sent a flag to Major Preston, who commanded the besieged fortress, summoning him to surrender. The summons was obeyed on the 3d of November, and the fort was soon entered by American troops.

Nov. 3.
St. John's sur-
renders to the
Americans.

General Carleton now abandoned Montreal to its fate, and made his escape down the river in the night, in a small canoe, with muffled oars. The next day, Gen. Montgomery, after engaging to allow the inhabitants their own laws, the free exercise of their religion, and the privilege of governing themselves, entered the town. His benevolent conduct induced many to join his standard: yet some of his own army deserted, from severity of climate, and many, whose time of enlistment had nearly expired, insisted on returning home. With the remnant of his army, consisting of 300 men, he began his march towards Quebec, expecting to meet there the detachment of troops under Arnold, who were to penetrate by the way of Maine.

Montgomery
takes possession
of Montreal.

Arnold commenced his march with 1,000 men, about the middle of September. After sustaining almost incredible hardships, he arrived at Point Levi, opposite Quebec, on the 9th of November. On the 13th, he crossed the St. Lawrence in the night, and ascending

Nov. 13.
Arnold appears
before Quebec,
but is compelled
to retire.

the precipice which Wolfe had ascended before him, formed his army, which, from the hardships it had endured, was reduced to 700 men, on the heights near the memorable plains of Abraham, and advanced in the hope of surprising the city. Being convinced, by a cannon shot from the wall, that the garrison had obtained knowledge of his approach, and were ready to receive him, and feeling his force to be insufficient to carry on a regular siege, or hazard a battle, he retired on the 18th, to Point Aux Trembles, there to await the arrival of Montgomery.

Carleton
strengthens
Quebec.

Gen. Carleton, on retiring from Montreal, proceeded to Quebec, and immediately after Arnold had withdrawn his troops, began, with a garrison of 1,500 men, to prepare for a vigorous defence.

Dec 1.
Montgomery
joins Arnold at
Point Aux Trem-
bles.

General Montgomery joined Arnold on the first of December. The united forces of the Americans amounted to less than 1,000 effective men. On the 5th, Montgomery addressed a letter to the governor, and sent a flag with a summons to surrender. Gen. Carleton ordered his troops to fire upon the bearer of the flag, and forbade all communication. Montgomery attempted to batter the walls, and harass the city, by repeated attacks. During one night, he constructed a battery of ice, where he planted his cannon; but they were not of sufficient force to make any material impression, or to alarm the garrison.

Montgomery now found himself under circumstances much more delicate and embarrassing, than those which had, sixteen years before, environed Wolfe at the same place. Several feet of snow covered the ground; and his troops had undergone the severest hardships which human nature can endure. Yet to abandon the enterprise, was to relinquish fame, and disappoint the expectations, however unreasonable they might be, of his too sanguine countrymen. He, therefore, with the unanimous approbation of his officers, came to the desperate determi-

Dec. 31.
They assault
Quebec at oppo-
site points.

nation of storming the city. Just at the dawn of day, on the 31st of December, and during a violent snow storm, the troops marched from the camp, in four divisions, commanded by Montgomery, Arnold, Brown, and Livingston. The two latter were to make feigned attacks; but, impeded by the snow, they did not arrive in season to execute their orders. Arnold and Montgomery were to make an assault at opposite points. Montgomery, at the head of his valiant band, was obliged to advance through a narrow path, leading under the projecting rocks of a precipice. When they reached the block-house and picket, he assisted with his own hands to open a passage for his troops, encouraging, by his voice and his example, his brave companions. They advanced boldly and

rapidly to force the barrier, when, a single and accidental discharge from a cannon, proved fatal to this brave and excellent officer, and thus destroyed the hopes of the enterprise. Several of Montgomery's best officers shared his fate; and Col. Campbell, on whom the command devolved, found it impossible to pursue the advantages already gained.

In the meantime, Arnold, at the head of his detachment, was advancing, with the utmost intrepidity, when he received a musket ball in the leg, and was carried off the field. Col. Morgan, who succeeded him, led on the troops with so much vigour, that he soon made himself master of the second barrier. But the troops of the garrison, freed from their apprehensions of attack at any other point, were now enabled to turn their undivided force upon Col. Morgan and his party. In order to cut off his retreat, a detachment, with several field pieces, attacked him in the rear, while in front he had to oppose the whole remaining garrison. The stand which this little band of provincials made against three times their number, is sufficient evidence that nothing but the death of Montgomery, and the subsequent retreat of the party on the opposite side, could have prevented the fall of Quebec, and the surrender of Carleton. After an obstinate defence of three hours, they were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

Montgomery is killed; and a part of the assailants surrender.

On the part of the Americans, the loss was about 400; that of the enemy was inconsiderable. The treatment of Carleton to his prisoners, did honour to his humanity. Arnold, wounded as he was, retired with the remainder of his army, to the distance of three miles below Quebec; where, though inferior in numbers to the garrison, they kept it in a state of blockade, and in the course of the winter, reduced it to great distress for want of provisions.

Arnold, with the remainder, blockades Quebec.

SECTION VI.

WHILE these events were transacting in the north, the royal force, both by sea and land, was turned against New England. Orders were given to the British officers to treat the Americans as rebels, and to lay waste and destroy all such seaports as had taken part in the rebellion. In consequence of these orders, the towns of Bristol in Rhode Island, and Falmouth in Massachusetts, were burned by the orders of Captain Mowatt, of the British navy.

1775.

The British burn Bristol and Falmouth.

These, and other outrages of the royalists, excited the Americans to redouble their exertions ; they put forth all their efforts to collect military stores ; they purchased powder in all foreign ports where it was practicable, and, in many colonies, commenced its manufacture. They also began more seriously to turn their attention to their armed vessels. Massachusetts granted letters of marque and reprisal.* Congress also fitted out some frigates, and caused two battalions of marines to be raised for the service, and framed articles of war for the government of their little navy. Gen. Washington employed in the service several

American privateers are successful.

cruisers to intercept the store-ships of the enemy. Congress, at the same time, established regular courts of admiralty, for the adjudication of all prizes. These mea-

sures produced a spirit of adventure, and the American coast soon swarmed with privateers. Alert and bold, they visited every sea, and greatly annoyed the British commerce. In these enterprises, one of the most distinguished leaders, was Captain Manly, of Marblehead.

Efforts were still made by the British ministry to retain the colony of New-York, under their own influence. They restored Tryon, who

British attempt to detach New-York from the confederacy.

was greatly beloved by the people, to the government of New-York, for the express purpose of detaching, if possible, this colony from the united confederacy ; and to this end, they empowered him to make use of measures

to bribe and corrupt. Congress, alarmed for the safety of the colony, recommended that “all persons, whose going at large would endanger the liberty of America, should be arrested and secured.” In consequence of this intelligence, Gov. Tryon was obliged to take refuge on board a ship in the harbour.

Lord Dunmore attempts to regain his authority in Virginia.

The government of Virginia was now in the hands of the colonial assembly ; but Lord Dunmore, still on board the king's ships, did not abandon all hopes of regaining his former station ; and, in November, he issued a procla-

mation declaring martial law, and promising freedom to such slaves as would leave their masters, and join his party. His numbers were soon increased by several hundred negroes and royalists. The assembly, receiving notice of his proceedings, sent eight hundred militia to oppose his movements. Dunmore left his ships, and occupied a strong position near Norfolk. The Virginians took a post nearly opposite ; and

Dec. 7. here they were attacked, on the 7th of December, by the

His party are defeated near Norfolk.

royalists and negroes. They repelled the assailants, and gained a decisive victory ; after which, they occupied

* “Letters of Marque and Reprisal are a commission granted by the supreme authority of a state to a subject, empowering him to enter an enemy's territories, and capture the goods and person of the enemy, in return for goods or persons taken by him.” Webster.

the town of Norfolk. Lord Dunmore, with his forces, again repaired to his ships, where, in consequence of the many royalists who joined him, he became reduced to great distress, for want of provisions. In this situation, he sent a flag to Norfolk, demanding a supply for his majesty's ships. The commander of the provincials, refusing to comply with this requisition, he inhumanly set fire to the town, and reduced it to ashes. At length, he was compelled to relinquish all attempts to regain his government; and his followers, on board the ships, assailed at once by tempest, famine and disease, sought refuge in Florida, Bermuda, and the West Indies.

Jan. 1
Dunmore burns Norfolk; and quits the province.

The last hope of the colonies for reconciliation, rested in the petition of congress to the king, which had been emphatically styled the *olive branch*, and was sent over by Mr. Penn, a descendant of the proprietor of Pennsylvania, and a former governor of that colony, but the earliest information received from him, after the meeting of parliament, dissolved every vestige of hope. The king, in his speech at the opening of the session, accused the Americans of hostility and rebellion; and declared that the object of their taking up arms, was to establish an independent empire. To prevent this, he recommended that vigorous measures should be taken to subdue them; not forgetting such as were likely to weaken them, by divisions. As this speech developed the ministerial views, large majorities in both houses, notwithstanding the eloquence of Mr. Burke and others, answered the king's speech, by responding the same sentiments of accusation against the colonies, and the same determination to reduce them to obedience, by measures of distress and coercion.

1775.
Parliament resolves to enforce obedience from the colonies.

The friends of America obtained a reluctant vote of the peers to examine Mr. Penn. This gentleman affirmed, that the colonies would still allow the royal authority of Great Britain, but not its present system of taxation; that the rejection of the present offer would certainly prove an insuperable bar to reconciliation; but the prevailing wish in America still was, restoration of friendship with Great Britain.

Mr. Penn is examined before the peers.

About the last of December, an act was passed prohibiting all trade and commerce with the colonies; and authorizing the capture and condemnation of all American vessels, with their cargoes, and all other vessels found trading in any port or place in the colonies, as if the same were the vessels and effects of open enemies; and the vessels and property thus taken were vested in the captors, and the crews were to be treated, not as prisoners, but as slaves

Trade with the colonies prohibited.

Parliament re-
fuses to hear the
petition of the
colonies.

The petition carried by Mr. Penn, had been laid before parliament; but both houses refused to hear it, alleging, that they could not treat upon any proposition coming from an unlawful assembly. By the passage of these acts, and the rejection of this last petition, Great Britain filled full the measure of its wrongs to America, and sealed the doom of its eternal separation from its colonies.

England hires
mercenaries.

Treaties were made with the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and other German princes, hiring of them 17,000 men, to be employed against the Americans; and it was determined to send over, in addition to these, 25,000 English troops.*

At the close of the year 1775, the American army was almost destitute of the necessary supplies for carrying on the war. The terms of enlistment of all the troops had expired in December; and although measures had been taken for recruiting the army, yet on the last day of December, when the old troops were to be disbanded, there were but 9,650 men enlisted for the ensuing year. General Washington proposed to Congress to try the influence of a bounty; but his proposal was not acceded to until late in January, and it was not until the middle of February, that the regular army amounted to 14,000 men; in addition to which the commander-in-chief called out 6,000 Massachusetts militia.

1776.

General Washington had continued the blockade of Boston during the winter of 1775-6, and at last resolved to bring the enemy to action, or to drive them from the town. On the night of the 4th of March, a detachment, under the command of General Thomas, silently crossed the neck of land which separates Dorchester Heights from the town; and constructed, in a single night, a redoubt which gave them command of the heights, and menaced the British shipping with destruction. When the light of the morning discovered to General Howe the advantage the Americans had gained, he perceived, that no alternative remained for him, but to dislodge them, or evacuate the place. He immediately despatched a few regiments to attempt the former, but a violent tempest of wind and rain rendered their efforts ineffectual. The Americans had continued, with unremitting industry to strengthen their works, until they were now too secure to be easily forced. After the failure of this attempt, a council of war was held, in which it was resolved to evacuate the town. Preparations were immediately made for the embarkation of the troops; and, on the

* When the intelligence of the Prohibitory Act, and the treaty for the German troops, reached America, such indignant feelings were excited, that the flag, which had hitherto been plain red, was changed to thirteen stripes, as emblematical of the union of the colonies.

morning of the 17th, the whole British force, with such of the loyalists as chose to follow their fortunes, set sail for Halifax. As the rear of the British troops were embarking, Gen. Washington entered the town in triumph.

March 17.
British evacuate
Boston.

In the plans for the campaign of 1776, beside the relief of Quebec, and the recovery of Canada, two expeditions were resolved upon by the British. The object of the one was to reduce the southern colonies; the command of which was given to Gen. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker; and the object of the other was to gain possession of New-York. The command of this was given to Admiral and Sir William Howe, who had succeeded Gen. Gage, in the command of the British troops.

Plans of the British for the campaign.

Arnold had continued the siege of Quebec, and had greatly annoyed the garrison; but he found himself oppressed with many difficulties. His army had suffered extremely from the inclemency of the season, and the small pox had made its way into the camp. Notwithstanding the garrison of Montreal had been sent to reinforce him, he had, at this time, scarcely one thousand effective men. The reinforcements which had been ordered by congress, to his relief, were slow in arriving; and when they reached Quebec, they were greatly reduced in numbers by disease. Added to this, the river was now clear of ice, and the British fleet was daily expected to arrive.

Gen. Thomas, who had been sent by congress, now succeeded Arnold in command. He was unwilling to raise the siege of Quebec, without making another effort to reduce the place. With the view of burning the vessels of the governor, he sent a fire-ship down the river, intending to take advantage of the disorder, which would ensue, to make an assault upon the town; but the garrison, perceiving his design, took measures to frustrate it; and the attempt failed. Having now nothing further to expect from a siege, and seeing his troops daily diminish, both in numbers and courage, Gen. Thomas resolved to abandon the enterprise. On the very day appointed for raising the siege, several British vessels came in sight of Quebec, bringing reinforcements to the garrison. These ships now had the command of the river, and prevented any communication between the different parts of the American camp. Gen. Thomas found it necessary to retreat with the greatest precipitation, leaving behind him the baggage, artillery, munitions, and whatever else might have retarded the march of the army. Many of the sick, together with all the military stores, fell into the hands of the enemy.

Gen. Thomas succeeds Arnold at Quebec.

He abandons the siege, and retreats to the Sorel.

Had Gen. Carleton vigorously pursued the Americans, they could not, probably, have effected their retreat; but he seemed only desirous of driving the the besiegers from the neighbourhood. He treated with

great kindness the sick, and other prisoners that fell into his hands. The Americans continued their retreat to the river Sorel, having marched the first forty-five miles without halting. Here they found a reinforcement of several regiments, under the command of Gen. Thompson, waiting their arrival. Gen. Thomas was now seized with the small pox, of which he died ; when the command devolved upon Gen. Sullivan.

Adverse fortune seemed, in every part of Canada, to follow the American arms. While the troops before Quebec were compelled to retreat by a superior force, a calamity, resulting from cowardice, was experienced by a body of the Americans, in another quarter. Americans are defeated at the Cedars. A garrison of 400 men, under the command of Col. Bedel, was stationed at the Cedars, about forty miles above Montreal, at the head of one of the rapids. Col. Bedel, having received information, that Captain Foster, with about five hundred royalists and Indians, was descending the river, to attack the post, immediately proceeded to Montreal to obtain assistance, leaving the command with a subordinate officer. They invested the fort ; and the American officer, intimidated by the threat of Captain Foster, that if any of the Indians were killed, a general massacre of the Americans would take place, surrendered the post, without resistance. A reinforcement, under the command of Maj. Sherburne, was ordered to march from Montreal. While on his way thither, ignorant of the surrender of the fort, Maj. Sherburne was attacked by the Indians, to whom, after a spirited defence, he was obliged to surrender. The loss of the Americans at this place could not have been less than 500.

British forces in Canada. The British army in Canada was now augmented to 13,000 men ; and although they were scattered along the banks of the St. Lawrence, yet the general place of rendezvous was at Three Rivers, a village about half way from Quebec to Montreal. The party stationed at this place, was under the command of Gen. Frazer ; another, under Gen. Nesbit, was near them, on board the transports ; one greater than either, with generals Carleton, Burgoyne, Philips, and the German baron, Reidesel, was on its way from Quebec.

Gen. Sullivan detached Gen. Thompson from the river Sorel, with a considerable body of troops, to attack the enemy at Three Rivers. He dropped down the river by night, with the intention of surprising Gen. Frazer. The troops passed the ships, without discovery ; but, arriving at the place an hour later than had been intended, they were discovered at their landing, and the enterprise was frustrated, with the loss of 200 men, who were made prisoners.

Gen. Sullivan was induced, by the unanimous opinion of his officers, to abandon the post at Sorel, after the British entered it. He was

joined at St. John's by Gen. Arnold, who had crossed at Longueil, just in time to save the garrison from falling into the hands of the enemy. Gen. Sullivan, at the Isle Aux Noix, received the orders of Gen. Schuyler to embark on the lakes for Crown Point; which post they reached in safety, June 15th, 1776. On the Sorel the pursuit stopped. The Americans had the command of the lakes, and the British general deemed it prudent to wrest it from them, before he advanced further. Thus ended the enterprise against Canada. It was a bold, though unsuccessful effort to annex that extensive province to the United Colonies. It had, however, in its commencement, been attended with success to the Americans, and displayed the military character of the colonial officers in the most honourable point of view.

June 18.
Americans evacuate Canada.

The British fleets, under Sir Peter Parker and Gen. Clinton, united at Cape Fear, and proceeded together to Charleston; where they arrived early in June. The fleet under Parker, brought the expected reinforcements, with Lord Cornwallis, Gen. Vaughn, and Col. Ethan Allen, who was now exchanged. This officer, with his fellow prisoners, had been confined in Pendennis castle, in Cornwall.

June.
British fleets arrive at Charleston.

Fortunately, an official letter had been intercepted early in the year, announcing the departure of this armament from England, and its destination against the southern states. This gave the colonists an opportunity to be prepared for its reception. Sullivan's island, at the entrance of Charleston harbour, had been strengthened; and a fort had been constructed with the palmetto tree, which very much resembles the cork. On learning the near approach of the enemy, the militia of the country were summoned to defend the capital. The popularity of Gen. Lee, the commander, soon collected a force of 5 or 6,000 men, and his high military reputation gave confidence to the citizens as well as soldiers. Under him were colonels Gadsden, Moultrie, and Thompson. Col. Gadsden commanded a regiment, stationed on the northern extremity of James' island; two regiments, under colonels Moultrie and Thompson, occupied the opposite extremities of Sullivan's island. The remainder of the troops were posted at various points. Gen. Clinton landed a number of his troops on Long Island, separated from Sullivan's island, on the eastern side, by a small creek. The fort on Sullivan's island was garrisoned by about 400 men, commanded by Col. Moultrie. The attack on this fort commenced on

the morning of the 28th of June. The ships opened their several broadsides upon it; and a detachment was landed on an adjoining island, and directed to pass over where the sea was fordable, and attack it in the rear. The discharge of artillery upon this little fort was incessant; but Moultrie and his

June 28.
Attack of the British on Sullivan's island.

brave Carolinians returned the fire with such skill and spirit, that many of the ships suffered severely ; and the British, after persisting in their attack until dark, were repulsed and forced to abandon the enterprise. Their loss amounted to about 200 ; that of the Americans to ten killed and twenty-two wounded. The palmetto wood, in this instance, proved an effectual defence ; as the enemy's balls did not penetrate, but sunk into it as into earth. The name of the fort was henceforth called, from its brave defender, Moultrie.

During this engagement, a singular circumstance occurred. After a dreadful volley from the British, the flag of the fort was no longer seen to wave ; and the Americans were, every moment, expecting to see the British troops mount the parapets in triumph. But none appeared ; and, after a few moments, the striped banner of America was once more unfurled to their view. The staff had been carried away by a shot, and the flag had fallen upon the outside of the works. A brave serjeant, by the name of Jasper, jumped over the wall, and, amidst a shower of bullets, fastened it in its place

Washington
fixes his head
quarters at New-
York.

It had early occurred to Washington, that the central situation of New-York, with the numerous advantages attending the possession of that city, would render it an object of great importance to the British. . Under this impression, before the enemy evacuated Boston, Gen. Lee had been detached from Cambridge, to put Long Island and New-York in a posture of defence. Soon after the evacuation of Boston, the commander-in-chief followed, and with the greater part of his army, fixed his head quarters in New-York.

British sail for
New-York.

A few days after the repulse at Charleston, the British fleet, with the troops on board, set sail for the vicinity of New-York, where the whole British force had been ordered to assemble.

Independence
proposed in con-
gress.

On the 7th of June, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, made a motion in congress, for declaring the colonies
FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES.

The most vigorous exertions had been made by the friends of independence, to prepare the minds of the people, to perceive the necessity and advantage of such a measure. Among the numerous writers on this momentous question, the most luminous and forcible was Thomas Paine. His pamphlet entitled "Common Sense," was read and understood by all. While it demonstrated the necessity, the advantage, and the practicability of independence, it treated kingly government and hereditary succession, with ridicule and opprobrium. Two years before, the inhabitants of the colonies were the loyal subjects of the king of England, and wished not for independence, but for constitutional liberty. But the crown of England had, for their assertion of this right,

declared them out of its protection ; rejected their petitions ; shackled their commerce ; and finally employed foreign mercenaries to destroy them. Such were the excitements, which, being stirred up and directed by the master spirits of the times, had, in the space of two years, changed the tide of public feeling in America, and throughout her extensive regions, produced the general voice—"WE WILL BE FREE."

Satisfied by indubitable signs, that such was the resolution of the people, congress deliberately and solemnly decided to make, in a formal manner, this declaration to the world—"AMERICA is, and of right ought to be, A FREE AND INDEPENDENT NATION."

July 4.

The Declaration of Independence was agreed to in congress, on the 4th of July, 1776.*

Independence
declared.

"This important paper commences with stating, that, 'when, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bonds which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal stations to which the laws of nature, and of nature's God, entitle them, a decent respect to the opinion of mankind requires, that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.'"

The causes are then stated, and a long enumeration of the oppressions complained of by America, is closed, with saying, "a prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people."

The fruitless appeals which had been made to the people of Great Britain are also recounted ; but "they too," concludes this declaration, "have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our separation ; and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends."

"We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown ; and that all political connexion between them

* Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and R. R. Livingston, had been appointed, on the 11th of June; to prepare a declaration of independence. It was agreed by this committee, that each one should draw up such a draft as his judgment and feelings should dictate ; and that, upon comparing them together, that one should be chosen as the report of the committee, which should prove most conformable to the wishes of the whole. Mr. Jefferson's paper was the first read ; and every member of the committee determined, spontaneously, to suppress his own production ; observing, that it was unworthy to bear a competition with that which they had just heard. See Appendix.

and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved, and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.”*

After the treaty of Paris, the English divided their newly acquired territories into three provinces: viz. East and West Florida, and Quebec. The limits of Georgia were extended to the St. Mary's; and the lands lying in the interior of the country, westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from the west and northwest, were reserved for the use of their aboriginal proprietors. The settlements in Vermont, now called New Hampshire grants, had extended from the southern over the northern parts of the state. New-York at this time claimed jurisdiction over them; but its claims were opposed by those who had settled the lands, under grants from New Hampshire. Emigrants from the eastern states, had commenced the settlement of the present states of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Population.

New Hampshire,.....	52,000.
Massachusetts,	292,000.
Connecticut,	197,856.
Rhode Island,.....	59,678.
New-York,	168,000.
South Carolina,.....	40,000 whites.
Louisiana, ..	5,500.

The precise population of the other colonies, unknown; but the whole number of inhabitants in the colonies, at this period, was nearly three millions.

Principal Towns.—New-York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, (Md.) Boston, Charleston, (S. C.) Jamestown, (Va.) Newark, (N. J.) Providence and Newport, (R. I.) Hartford, New Haven, and New London, (Conn.) and Portland, in Maine.

* Marshall's Life of Washington.

Colleges.—Harvard, Yale, William and Mary's, King's,* Nassau Hall, Rhode Island College at Warren, and Dartmouth in Hanover New Hampshire.

Societies formed.

1766. The Marine Society of Salem.

1769. The American Philosophical Society, for the promotion of useful knowledge, held at Philadelphia.

1771. New-York Library.

*Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period,
extending from 1763 to 1776.*

Year in which
they died.

ZABDIEL BOYLSTON, F. R. S., an eminent physician; the first who introduced the inoculation of the small pox into America.

1766.

JONATHAN MAYHEW, D. D., a learned divine.

THOMAS CLAP, president of Yale College, constructed the first orrery, or planetarium, made in America.

1767.

EDWARD HOLYOKE, president of Harvard College.

1769.

GEORGE WHITFIELD, one of the founders of the sect of the Methodists.

1770.

WILLIAM SHIRLEY, governor of Massachusetts.

1771.

SAMUEL JOHNSON, president of King's College, New-York.

1772.

JOHN CLAYTON, an eminent botanist and physician, author of "Flora Virginica."

1773.

WILLIAM JOHNSON, major general of the militia of New-York, and distinguished in the last French war.

1774.

THOMAS HOLLIS, a distinguished benefactor of Harvard College.

RICHARD MONTGOMERY, a major general in the American army.

1775.

JOSIAH QUINCY, an eminent statesman and patriot.

PEYTON RANDOLPH, first president of congress.

JOSEPH WARREN, a major general in the American army, and a distinguished patriot.

* Afterwards Columbia.

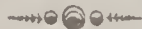
PART VIII.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The Declaration of } **SEVENTH EPOCH, 1776,** { Independence, &c.

TO THE

Commencement of the } **EIGHTH EPOCH, 1789.** { Federal Government.



SECTION I.

1776. CONSIDERED as a step in the great march of human society, perhaps no one can be fixed upon of more importance, than the solemn promulgation of the writing, which, while it contained a catalogue of the grievances of America, and declared her freedom, embodied also, and held up to the view of the world, the universal wrongs of the oppressed; sent forth a warning voice to the oppressor; and declared the common rights of all mankind.

But, as it more particularly concerned the condition of the Americans, the signing of this declaration by the American congress, was a momentous procedure. That firm band of patriots well knew, that, in affixing their signatures, they were, in the eyes of England, committing the very fact of treason and rebellion; and that in case of her ultimate success, it was their own death warrant which they signed. Their countrymen felt that there was now no receding from the contest, without devoting to death these their political fathers, who had thus fearlessly made themselves the organs of declaring, what was equally the determination of their constituents, that America should no longer be subject to Britain. Thus it was now the general feeling, that the die was cast, and nothing remained but liberty or death. Foreign nations

also regarded the contest in a different light. "The declaration of independence," says Allen, in his history of the revolution, "once published to the world with such solemnity, gave a new character to the contest, not only in the colonies, but in Europe. It was no longer the unholy struggle of subjects against their monarch; of children against their parents; but it became the temperate and determined stand of men who had entrenched themselves within the certain and thoroughly understood limits of their rights; of men who had counted the cost dispassionately, and measured the event without shrinking."

The troops from Halifax, under the command of Gen. Howe, after touching at Sandy Hook took possession of Staten Island on the 2d of July; and those from England, commanded by Admiral Howe, landed at the same place on the 12th of the same month. About the same time, Clinton arrived, with the troops which he had reconducted from the expedition against Charleston. Commodore Hotham also appeared about the same time, with the expected reinforcements from England; so that the army amounted, in the whole, to 24,000, of English, Hessians, and Waldeckers. Several Hessian regiments were expected shortly, when the army would consist of 35,000 of the best troops of Europe.

With the hope that this powerful force might have awakened the fears of the Americans, and thus disposed them to submission, Lord Howe, before commencing active operations, made an attempt at pacification. He had, in the month of June, announced, by his proclamations, that he was empowered to grant pardon to any person, or to the inhabitants of any city or province, who should return to their allegiance: and he promised large recompense to any who should contribute to re-establish the royal authority. Congress, to prevent the intended effects of this proclamation, instead of endeavouring to suppress it, took the wiser course of causing it to be printed in the journals of the day, with accompanying remarks, which showed to the people its insidious nature; while the declaration of independence, made soon after by congress, showed to Lord Howe, in what light these promises were viewed by that body. He now addressed himself to the commander-in-chief, in a letter directed to George Washington, Esq. With a spirit which the whole nation applauded, Washington returned the letter unopened; alleging, that it had not expressed his public station, and that as a private individual, he neither could, nor would, hold any communication with the agents of the king. Howe, not yet discouraged, sent another communication by Adjutant-General Patterson. The reply which Washington made to the smooth and conciliatory address of this gentleman, was an expression of that common feeling of his countrymen, which was the true source of a union, that both the threats and promises of

July 2.

Howe takes possession of Staten Island.

June.

Fruitless attempts at pacification.

Great Britain, failed to divide. The sentiment it contained was, that Great Britain did not offer the Americans the enjoyment of their rights; she offered nothing but forgiveness of offences:—America had committed no offences, and asked no forgiveness.

Howe's plan of
operations.

The officers in command, General and Admiral Howe, no longer hesitated to direct their efforts against New-York. The possession of this important post would give to the English a firm footing in America, from which their army could turn to the right, and carry the war into New England; or to the left, to scour New Jersey, and menace Philadelphia. It was a convenient depository for arms, from whence they could infest the neighbouring towns, attack and combat the Americans with advantage, and retreat without danger; and Long Island, adjacent to New-York, being abundant in grain and cattle, offered subsistence to a numerous army. Howe expected to be seconded in his invasion of New-York, by thirteen thousand men from Canada, under Gen. Carleton, who, it was hoped, after passing the lakes, would be able to descend the Hudson at the same time that Howe should ascend it, and, by their junction, intercept all communication between New England, and the middle, and southern states. Clinton was at the same time to operate in the southern provinces, and attack Charleston; while the American troops being thus divided, and their generals pressed upon so many points at once, it was not doubted that the British arms would soon be successful. This success, however, was dependent on the concurrence of a number of circumstances. Admiral Howe, retarded by contrary winds, did not arrive until the expedition against Charleston had failed. The army of Canada encountered so many obstacles, that it was not able, this year, to make its way to the Hudson. Hence, Washington was not compelled to weaken his army upon the coast to send succours into South Carolina, or towards Canada.

Strength and po-
sition of Wash-
ington's army.

The American congress had ordered the construction of gun-boats, galleys, and floating batteries, to defend New-York and the mouth of the Hudson. Thirteen thousand of the militia were ordered to join the army of Washington, which thus increased, amounted to twenty-seven thousand; but a fourth of these were invalids, and another fourth were poorly provided with arms. From these, and other causes, the force fit for duty did not exceed ten thousand; and of this number, the greater part was without order or discipline. These inconveniences proceeded, in part, from want of money, which prevented congress from paying regular troops, and providing for their equipments; and partly from parsimonious habits, contracted during peace, which withheld them from incurring with promptitude the expenses necessary to a state of war; while their

jealousy of standing armies inspired the hope, that they could each year organize an army sufficient to resist the enemy.

The American army occupied the island of New-York. Two detachments guarded Governor's Island and Paulus Hook. The militia, under the American Clinton, were stationed at East and West Chester, and New Rochelle, to prevent the British landing in force on the north shore, penetrating to Kingsbridge, and thus enclosing the Americans in the island. A considerable part of the army, under Gen. Putnam, encamped at Brooklyn, on a part of Long Island which forms a sort of peninsula. The entrance was fortified with moats and entrenchments. Putnam's left wing rested upon Wallabout bay, his right was covered by a marsh adjacent to Gowan's Cove. Behind was Governor's Island, and the arm of the sea between Long Island and New-York, which gave him direct communication with the city, where Washington was with the main army.

On the 22d of August, the English landed, without opposition, between the villages of New Utrecht and Gravesend, on Long Island. They extended themselves to Flatlands, distant four miles from the Americans, and separated from them by a range of hills, called the heights of Gawanus, which, covered with woods, and running from east to west, divide the island into two parts. These hills were passable only in three places; one, the road near the Narrows, on the left of the English; one the road leading to the centre, by Flatbush; the other, and most eastern, that on the right of the British, by Flatlands. Upon the summits of these hills, is a road the length of the range from Bedford to Jamaica, intersected by the Flatlands and Flatbush roads. Washington, wishing to arrest the enemy on these heights, had guarded them with his best troops, and had made such arrangements, as, with proper vigilance, would have rendered the passage one of extreme difficulty and danger.

Aug. 22.
British land on
Long Island.

About midnight of the 26th, the English, under Gen. Grant, attacked the Americans from the left, thus inducing the belief, that against this post the main strength of the British would be directed. At daybreak on the 27th, the Hessians, under Gen. De Heister, attacked from the centre, and General Sullivan, who commanded the forces in front of the American camp, led them to repel the Hessians.

Aug. 27.
Battle of Long
Island, in which
the Americans
are defeated.

At the same time, the English ships commenced a brisk cannonade upon the battery at Red Hook. Col. Miles was to guard the Flatlands road, and to scour that and the Jamaica road continually, in order to reconnoitre the movements of the enemy. This service, as events proved, was the most important, and the worst performed, of any on the side of the Americans. It was here that the British generals made their grand effort, and here that the Americans suffered a surprise.

The right wing of the English, which was the most numerous, and entirely composed of select troops, under generals Clinton, Percy, and Cornwallis, proceeded by Flatlands, and were, before Miles perceived their approach, within half a mile of the Jamaica road, upon the heights. Scouts sent out by Sullivan were captured; and he was thus left in ignorance of the enemy's approach, until his flank was attacked by their infantry. He instantly ordered a retreat; but was intercepted in the rear by the English, who had occupied the plains from Bedford, and compelled the Americans to throw themselves into the neighbouring woods. There they were met by the Hessians, who repulsed them upon the English. Thus were the distressed Americans alternately chased and intercepted, until, at length, several regiments cut their way, with desperate valour, through the midst of the enemy, and gained the camp of Putnam; but a great part of the detachment were killed, or taken prisoners. The left wing having given way, the right attempted to retreat, but they were encountered by the English, and many were taken prisoners. Lord Sterling, at the head of a Maryland company, charged a superior British force, and kept them engaged, while a considerable body of the Americans passed them, and retreated to Brooklyn. The loss of the Americans was estimated at nearly 2,000,* and the British at about four hundred.

In the height of the engagement, Gen. Washington crossed to Brooklyn from New-York, and seeing so many of his best troops slaughtered, or taken prisoners, he uttered, it is said, an exclamation of anguish. He might, at this moment, have drawn all his troops from the encampment; and also called over all the forces in New-York, to take part in the conflict: but victory having declared in favour of the English, the courage with which it inspired them, and the superiority of their discipline, destroyed all hope of recovering the battle. Great praise is, therefore, due to Washington, for having preserved himself and his army for a happier future.

SECTION II.

1776. On the night of the 28th of August, Gen. Washington,
Aug. 28. with great skill and judgment, succeeded in drawing the
 Washington
 withdraws his remainder of his troops from Long Island to New-York;

* On the subject of the loss of the Americans on this unfortunate day authorities disagree. Sir Henry Clinton's official report states it at between three and four thousand; Gen. Washington's, at rising of one thousand. When the disastrous consequences of this engagement are considered, it does not seem probable that the American loss could have been less than two thousand.

to which place the detachment from Governor's Island, also retired. Finding, however, a disposition in the British, to attack the city, and knowing that it would be impossible to defend it, he removed his forces to the heights of Harlaem.

troops from Long Island.

About this time, Captain Hale, a highly interesting young officer of Connecticut, learning that Washington wished to know the state of the British army, on Long Island, volunteered for the dangerous service of a spy. He entered the British army in disguise, and obtained the desired information; but being apprehended in his attempt to return, he was carried before Sir William Howe, and by his orders was executed the next morning. At the place of execution, he exclaimed, "I lament that I have but one life to lay down for my country."

Hale executed as a spy.

On the 15th of September, the British army entered, and took possession of the city of New-York. A few days after, a fire broke out, which consumed nearly one-fourth part of the buildings. It is said that the fire was discovered in many different places at once; and hence some have supposed that the city was set on fire, as Moscow has more recently been, to deprive its enemies of its hospitable shelter.

Sep. 15th.
British enter New-York.

Gen. Howe, not yet convinced of the constancy of the Americans, still indulged a hope that they might now be sufficiently humbled to accede to the terms offered by England, and again made overtures for reconciliation. Benjamin Franklin, John Hancock, and Edward Rutledge, were accordingly appointed to meet the British commissioners at Staten Island. But as they utterly refused to treat on any other basis than the acknowledgement of American independence, nothing was effected.

An attempt made for reconciliation.

The situation in which the American commander now saw the momentous contest, could not but have filled him with alarming apprehensions for the fate of his country. Until the check at Brooklyn, the Americans had flattered themselves that heaven would constantly favour their arms. From the intoxicating confidence of prosperity, they now fell into a state of dejection. At first, they had believed that courage, without discipline, could do all; they now thought it could do nothing; at every moment, they were apprehensive of some new surprise, and at every step, fearful of falling into an ambuscade.

The Americans are dispirited.

Thus discouraged, the militia abandoned their colours by hundreds, and entire regiments deserted, and returned to their homes. In the regular army also, subordination diminished, and desertions were common. Their engagements were but for a year, or a few weeks; and the hope of soon returning to their families induced them to avoid dangers. The fidelity of the generals was not suspected; but their

talents were distrusted, and every thing appeared to threaten a total dissolution of the army. Washington strove earnestly, with exhortations, persuasions, and promises, to arrest this spirit of disorganization. If he did not succeed according to his designs, he obtained more than his hopes. To congress he addressed an energetic picture of the deplorable state of the forces, and assured them that he must despair of

Congress offer a bounty to the officers and soldiers.

success, unless furnished with an army that should stand by him till the conclusion of the struggle. To effect this, a bounty of twenty dollars was offered at the time of engagement, and portions of unoccupied lands were promised to the officers and soldiers.

But although Washington hoped ultimately to reap the benefit of these arrangements, yet time must intervene ; and his present prospect was that of a handful of dispirited and ill-found troops, to contend

Washington adopts the Fabian policy.

against a large and victorious army. In this situation he adopted the same policy by which Fabius Maximus had, 2,000 years before, preserved Italy, when invaded by Hannibal ; and, like him, saved his country. Hence he has been called the American Fabius. This policy was to risk no general engagement, but to harass and wear out the enemy, by keeping them in motion ; while by skirmishes, where success was probable, he would, by degrees, diminish their number, and inspirit his own troops.

Sep. 16.

The Americans gain an advantage.

On the 16th of September, the day after the British took possession of New-York, a considerable body of their troops appeared in the plain between the two armies. Washington ordered Col. Knowlton and Maj. Leech, with a detachment, to get in their rear, while he amused them with preparations to attack them in front. The plan succeeded ; and although the brave Knowlton was killed, the rencontre was favourable to the Americans ; particularly as it served in some degree to restore that confidence in themselves, which their preceding misfortunes had destroyed.

The British commander manœuvered with great address to bring Washington to a general engagement ; but not succeeding, he endeavoured to destroy his communication with the eastern states, and prevent his supply of provisions from that quarter. To effect this, it was necessary to occupy the two roads leading east. The one on the coast, the British secured with little difficulty ; but to occupy the more

Oct. 28.

Battle of White Plains.

inland road, they must get possession of that post of the highlands, called White Plains. Washington, aware of their object, removed his own force to that place, where, on the 28th of October, he was attacked by the British and Hessians, under generals Howe, Clinton, Knyphausen, and De Heister. A partial engagement ensued, in which the loss on both

sides was considerable. Howe could not, however, draw Washington from his position ; which he maintained, until a strong British reinforcement arriving under Lord Percy, he dared not any longer risk his army, but, on the night of the 30th, he withdrew his forces to North Castle. Leaving here 7,500 men, under Gen. Lee, he crossed the Hudson, and took post near Fort Lee.

Gen. Howe next turned his attention towards the forts Washington and Lee, which had been garrisoned, with the hope of preserving the command of the Hudson river. Gen. Washington, foreseeing their danger, had written to Gen. Greene, who commanded in that quarter, that if he should find Fort Washington not in a situation to sustain an assault, to cause it instantly to be evacuated. Gen. Greene, believing it might be maintained, left it under the command of the brave Col. Magaw, with a force of 2,700 men. On the 16th of November, the British attacked the fort in four different quarters. The Americans repelled them with such bravery, that, in the course of the day, about 1,200 of the assailants were killed or wounded. At

length, the Americans were forced to capitulate ; but not without securing to themselves honourable terms.

Nov. 16.
Fort Washington surrenders.

The prisoners taken by the British, at this time, amounted to about 2,000, a greater number than had, on any previous occasion, fallen into their hands.

The British army immediately crossed the Hudson, to attack Fort Lee ; but the garrison, apprised of their approach, evacuated the fort, and, under the guidance of Gen. Green, joined the main army at Newark.

Nov. 18.
Fort Lee evacuated.

The acquisition of these two forts, and the diminution of the American army, by the departure of those soldiers whose term of service had expired, encouraged the British to hope, that they should be able to annihilate, with ease, the remaining force of the republicans.

Washington still pursued the policy of avoiding an engagement, as the only hope of preserving his little army, which, at this time, amounted to only three thousand. Finding himself, in the post which he had taken at

Washington retreats across New Jersey. Is closely pursued.

Newark, too near his triumphant foe, he removed to Brunswick. The same day, Cornwallis, with a part of the British army, entered Newark. Washington again retreated from Brunswick to Princeton, and thence to Trenton. The British still pursuing, he finally crossed the Delaware, into Pennsylvania.

General Howe appears, on this occasion, to have manifested himself deficient in the energy and promptitude of the military character, as, with an army of sixfold numerical force, and tenfold efficient strength, comprised of disciplined troops, in health and vigour, ably commanded, completely equipped

Howe deficient in energy.

and furnished, and elated with success, he did not commence the pursuit till four days after the capture of forts Washington and Lee. On the 28th of November, as the American rear-guard left Newark at one end of the town, the British van entered it at the other; and at any time after this, until Washington crossed the Delaware, by a single forced march, they might have overtaken, and destroyed his army. But forced marches were not ordered by Gen. Howe; and when he arrived at the Delaware, where he had hoped to overtake the Americans, the last boat, with the baggage, was crossing the river. The British general, not choosing, however, to take the trouble of constructing flat-bottomed boats, for carrying over his troops, and the Americans having been careful not to leave theirs for his accommodation, he

Position of the British forces. arranged his German troops, to the number of 4,000, along the Delaware, from Holly to Trenton; placed a strong British force at Princeton; stationed his main army at Brunswick, and retired himself to New-York, to wait for the river to freeze, that thus he might be furnished with a convenient bridge; not doubting, as it would seem, but that the Americans would quietly wait until he was ready to pass over and destroy them.

SECTION III.

1776. Distress of Washington's army. WASHINGTON showed how well he deserved the confidence reposed in him, by making every exertion to increase his army, which, feeble as it was when he commenced his retreat, had hourly diminished. His troops were unfed amidst fatigue; unshod, while their bleeding feet were forced rapidly over the sharp projections of frozen ground; while they endured the keen December air, almost without clothes or tents. In such a situation, the wonder is not, that many died and many deserted, but that enough remained to keep up the show of opposition. In this distressing situation, Washington manifested to his troops all the firmness of the commander, while he showed all the tenderness of the father. He visited the sick, paid every attention in his power to the wants of the army, praised their constancy, represented their sufferings to congress, and encouraged their despairing minds, by holding out the prospects of a better future; while the serene and benignant countenance with which he covered his aching heart, made them believe that that their beloved and sagacious commander was himself animated with the prospects which he portrayed to them.

The distresses of the Americans were increased by the desertion of many of the supposed friends of their cause. Howe, taking advantage of what he considered their vanquished and hopeless condition, offered free pardon to all who should now declare for the royal authority. Of the extremes of society, the very rich and the very poor, numbers now sued for the royal clemency ; but few of the middle class deserted their country in its hour of peril.

Gen. Lee, as has been before stated, was, by the orders of Washington, separated from the main body of the army, soon after the battle of White Plains. He was sent northerly, to be at hand to succour the troops which were opposed to Carleton, upon the lakes. But when Washington found the main army in danger of annihilation, he ordered Lee to join him with all possible expedition. Gen. Mercer, who commanded a corps of light infantry at Bergen, and Gen. Gates, who commanded on the northern frontier, received similar orders, and promptly obeyed them. Washington had also sent in various directions to arouse the militia. Gen. Mifflin, from Pennsylvania, had now joined him with a body of 1,500. Lee's division was also united to the main army ; but it was under the conduct of Gen. Sullivan. Gen. Lee had not promptly executed the orders of Washington, but had lingered along the northern mountains of New Jersey ; where, having taken up his quarters at a house distant from the main body of his army, he was surprised, and carried prisoner to New-York, by a party of British cavalry, when Sullivan, as before stated, conducted his forces to Washington's camp.

He receives reinforcements.

Dec. 13.
Gen. Lee made prisoner.

With these reinforcements, the American army amounted to about 7,000 effective men. A few days, however, would close the year, and the period of enlistment for a considerable portion of the soldiers would expire with it. The cause of America demanded that important use should be made of the short space which intervened. At this critical moment, Washington formed the bold resolution of re-crossing the Delaware, and attacking the British at Trenton. It has been remarked, that the British force extended on the left bank of the Delaware, from Trenton to Holly, below Burlington. Washington designed to cross his army over the river, in three divisions;—at Makonkey's ferry, at Trenton ferry, and at Bristol, in order to attack the posts at Trenton and Burlington. The forces to cross at the two last places, commanded by Irving and Cadwallader, were unable, owing to the quantity of ice, to proceed. The main body, under Washington, crossed at Makonkey's ferry. This force was separated into two divisions, commanded by Sullivan and Greene ; under whom were Lord Sterling, generals Mercer and St. Clair. One division taking the upper road, the other, the

Dec. 26.
Washington defeats the Hessians at Trenton.

Pennington road, they arrived at Trenton at the same moment. The Hessians, under Colonel Rahl, were surprised, and their commander slain. Prisoners, to the amount of 1,000, were taken by the Americans, who immediately re-crossed the Delaware. The joy, caused by this success, was great; and it was unalloyed by that sorrow, which even victory generally brings. The Americans had scarcely lost a man; and many were induced, by this success, to serve six weeks longer. Two days after the action, Washington took quarters at Trenton.

1777.

Lord Cornwallis was, at this time, in New-York, on the point of embarking for England; but, on receiving news of this event, he returned instantly to New Jersey, and joined the British forces; which were assembled at Princeton. Leaving a part of his troops at this place, he immediately proceeded towards Trenton, with the intention of giving battle to the Americans, and arrived, with his vanguard on the first of January.

Washington, knowing the inferiority of his force, sensible, too, that flight would be almost as fatal as defeat, conceived the project of marching to Princeton, and attacking those who were left in that place. About midnight, leaving his fires burning briskly, that his army should not be missed, he silently decamped, and gained, by a circuitous route,

Jan. 3.

Washington defeats the British at Princeton.

the rear of the enemy. At sun-rise, the van of the American forces met, unexpectedly, two British regiments. A conflict ensued: the Americans gave way:—all was at stake; and Washington himself, at this decisive moment, led on the main body. The enemy were routed, and fled. Instead of pursuing them, Washington pressed forward towards Princeton, where one regiment of the enemy yet remained. A part of these saved themselves by flight; the remainder, about 300 in number, were made prisoners. The number killed, on the side of the British, was upwards of one hundred; that of the Americans, was less; but, among them, was the brave General Mercer, with several other valuable officers.

On hearing the cannonade from Princeton, Cornwallis, apprehensive for the safety of his Brunswick stores, immediately put his army in

Washington retires to Morristown.

motion for that place. Washington, on the approach of Cornwallis, retired to Morristown. When somewhat refreshed, he again took the field; and having taken possession of Newark, Woodbridge, Elizabethtown, and indeed of all the enemy's posts in New Jersey, except Brunswick and Amboy, he retired, on the 6th of January, to secure quarters at Morristown.

In order to give a connected view of the important operations of the main armies, events have been omitted, which, had the order of time been strictly observed, would have been sooner inserted.

On the 11th of October, the Northern American force, under Gen. Arnold, and the British force, under Carleton, met on lake Champlain, near the island of Valcour. The American armament was entirely destroyed; and Gen. Carleton, after proceeding to Crown Point, reconnoitered the posts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

1776.

Oct. 11.

Arnold defeated on lake Champlain.

On the same day on which Gen. Washington retreated over the Delaware, the British took possession of Rhode Island, and blockaded the squadron of Com. Hopkins, together with a number of privateers, at Providence.

Dec. 8.

British take possession of Rhode Island.

On the 12th of July, a committee, who had been appointed by congress to prepare and digest a form of confederation, reported certain articles, the discussion of which occupied a great share of the attention of congress, until their adoption, which did not occur until Nov. 15, 1777. They were subsequently adopted by the several state governments. By these articles it was agreed, that, on the first Monday of November in each year, a general congress should be convoked, of deputies from each of the states, and invested with all the powers which belong to the sovereigns of other nations. These powers were set forth, and the limits between the authority of the state and national government as clearly defined, as was, at that time practicable. These articles gave to the nation the style of the "United States of America." They were called the Articles of Confederation, and formed the basis of the American government, until the adoption of the federal constitution.

Oct. 4.

Articles of confederation adopted by congress.

Never, perhaps, was a firmer or a wiser band of patriots, than that which composed the congress of '76. They were environed with difficulties which would have utterly discouraged men of weaker heads, or fainter hearts. They were without any power, except the power to recommend. They had an exhausted army to recruit, amidst a discouraged people, and a powerful and triumphant foe; and all this, not merely without money, but almost without credit; for the bills, which they had formerly issued, had greatly depreciated, and were daily depreciating; yet, amidst all these discouragements, they held on their course of patriotic exertion, undismayed. In order to provide pecuniary resources, they passed a law, authorizing the loan of five millions of dollars, at four per cent. They also created a lottery; by which they hoped to raise the sum of one million five hundred thousand dollars. Desirous of inducing the French to espouse the American cause, they appointed, as commissioners to the court of France, Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee, whom they instructed to procure arms and ammunition, and obtain permission to fit

Money depreciates.

Commissioners sent to solicit aid from France.

out American vessels in the ports of France, to annoy the commerce of England. They directed them to solicit a loan of ten millions of francs,* and to endeavour, by every means in their power, to prevail upon the French government, to recognise the independence of the United States.

Congress invest
Washington
with extraordi-
nary powers.

To Gen. Washington they granted, for six months, powers which were almost dictatorial. They gave him authority to levy and organise sixteen battalions of infantry, in addition to those already voted by congress, and to appoint their officers; to raise and equip three thousand light horse, three regiments of artillery, and a corps of engineers, and to establish their pay. They empowered him to call into service the militia of the several states; to displace and appoint all officers under the rank of brigadier general, and to fill up all vacancies in every department of the American army. They also authorized him to take whatever he might want for the use of the army, at his own price, even if the inhabitants should refuse to sell it; and to arrest and confine persons, who should refuse to take the continental money, returning their names, and the nature of their offences, to the states of which they were citizens. This confidence in their defender, entitled them to find, (and they did find,) one who was devoted to their cause.



SECTION IV.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777.

1777.

Excesses of the
English army.

THE inhabitants of New Jersey were so exasperated at the excesses, which the English and Hessians had committed, that those troops, now occupying Brunswick and Amboy, could not venture out even to forage, without extreme danger. Gen. De Heister had not attempted to suppress his licentious soldiery; and the English soon vied with the Germans in all scenes of violence, outrage, cruelty, and plunder; and New Jersey presented only scenes of havoc and desolation. The complaints of America were echoed throughout Europe; and it was every where reproachfully said, that "England had revived in America, the fury of the Goths, and the barbarity of the northern hordes."

Revolt of the
royalists appre-
hended.

At this period, the loyalists, more commonly distinguished by the appellation of tories, evinced a spirit of revolt, in the counties of Somerset and Wooster, in Mary-

* 1,875,000

land ; of Sussex, in Delaware ; and of Albany, in New-York ; to which places troops were sent, to overawe them.

The small pox, which had made such ravages in the northern army, during the last year, now threatened that of Washington. To prevent the loss of lives, from this source, both regulars and militia were inoculated ; but so prudently did Washington conduct this affair, that no opportunity was, in consequence, offered for the British to attack his camp.

Small pox prevails in Washington's army.

The first attempts of the enemy, during the campaign of 1777, were against the American stores, collected at Courtland Manor, in New-York, and at Danbury, in Connecticut. Peekskill, the port of the Manor, was then in command of Col. M'Dougal. The 23d of March, the British, under Col. Bird, attacked this post ; and M'Dougal, knowing his few men could not defend it, destroyed the magazines, and retired to the back country.

March 23.

British take stores at Courtland Manor.

The 25th of April, 2,000 men, under Gov. Tryon, major of the royalists, or tories,* having passed the sound, landed between Fairfield and Norwalk. The next day, proceeding to Danbury, he compelled the garrison, under Col. Huntington, to retire ; and not only destroyed the stores, but burned the town.

Meantime, 800 militia had collected to annoy them, on their return ; of whom 500, under Arnold, took post at Ridgefield, to attack their front, while 300, under Gen. Wooster, fell upon their rear. Both parties were repulsed, Wooster slain, and Arnold retired to Saugatuck, about three miles east of Norwalk. The enemy having spent the night at Ridgefield, set fire to it, still retreating, although continually harassed by Arnold's party, now increased to 1,000 ; until they at length arrived at Campo, between Norwalk and Fairfield, and took refuge on board their ships. The British loss was 170, the American 100. Of the stores taken, the loss of tents was the most severely felt by the Americans. From the promptitude with which the inhabitants rose on the marauders, who expected many to join them, the friends of liberty had their hopes invigorated, and their exertions encouraged.

April 26.

Gen. Tryon destroys stores at Danbury.

The same effect was also produced by another affair which occurred soon after. The British had collected at Sag Harbour, on Long Island, immense magazines of forage and grain. Col. Meigs, one of the intrepid companions of Arnold, in the expedition to Canada, left Guil-

May 23.

Exploit of Col. Meigs at Sag Harbour.

* The remark is often made by those who remember the war of the revolution, that the tories were more cruel enemies than the British, and committed more wanton outrages on life and property.

ford, on the 23d of May, with 170 men, destroyed the stores, burned a dozen brigs and sloops, killed six of the enemy, took ninety prisoners, and returned without loss.

Effects of the mission to France. — About this time the effects of the mission to France began to appear. Congress had, with great judgment, selected Dr. Franklin as one of the commissioners. A profound knowledge of human nature, united with a warm and cheerful benevolence, had given to this philosopher a manner possessing a peculiar charm, attractive to all, however different their taste or pursuits. His wit and gayety, even at seventy, the age at which he went to Paris, had power to charm the young beauty from her lovers and her toilette ; while his wisdom and his learning could instruct the mechanic in his own trade, or the statesman, in his profoundest calculations. Perhaps it is equally to these qualities in Franklin, as to the graver wisdom and more heroic valour of Washington, that America owes her existence as a nation ; for it must ever remain problematical, whether, without the aid of France, it could have achieved its independence ;—and although political reasons might have operated to make France wish evil to England, yet without the interest, which Franklin found means to excite for America, the government might never have effectually interfered.

La Fayette espouses the cause of American liberty.

The young Marquis de la Fayette. With every thing to attach him to his country, rank, wealth, a deserving and beloved bride, he was yet moved by compassion to suffering virtue, and by indignation against oppression, to leave all that was individually dear, to expose his life, and impair his fortune in the cause of American liberty, and the rights of man. He had early communicated his resolution to the commissioners. After hearing of the disasters which followed the battle of Long Island, they felt bound to communicate to him the despairing state of their country ; and also that such was its extreme poverty, that they could not even provide him with a vessel for his conveyance. “ Then,” said Fayette, “ if your country is indeed reduced to this extremity, this is the moment that my departure to join its armies, will render it the most essential service.” His arrival caused a deep sensation of joy among the people. Congress appointed him a major general in the army ; and Washington received him into his family, and regarded him with parental affection.

The American commander, in forming such a probable calculation on the movements of his enemy at New-York, as would enable him to make a judicious disposition of his own army, which now amounted to 8,000 effective men, was well aware that there were two objects of

surpassing magnitude to the British. The one was, to get possession of Philadelphia; and the other, to proceed up the Hudson and form a junction with the northern army, and thus cut off the communication between the eastern and southern states. His sagacious mind comprehended that the latter was the most important enterprise; and he knew that it best coincided with the orders which Howe had received from England. He was, therefore, inclined to believe, that such would be his course; but he also knew, that Howe had, the preceding year, manifested a disposition to follow his own plans, rather than those of the ministry; and that it was a favourite project with him, to draw the Americans into a general engagement, not doubting but that it would issue in their final discomfiture. Washington, therefore, sought to make such a disposition of his forces, as should best enable him to concentrate them in opposition to the British commander, whichever way he should turn. He removed the main army from Morristown, and took a strong position at the heights of Middlebrook, and stationed the troops raised in the northern provinces, at Peekskill and Ticonderoga, and those from the middle and southern, in New-Jersey.

Washington removes from Morristown to Middlebrook.

Howe commenced his operations by an attempt, which the time wasted in his last campaign, might have taught him, would be fruitless;—that of drawing the American commander into a general engagement. For this purpose, he crossed the Hudson, and marched to Middlebrook; but finding the American camp too strong to attack, he remained several days before it, vainly offering battle. Finding that Washington could not be thus induced to leave his entrenchments, he made a feint to induce him to believe that he was going to attack Philadelphia, by detaching, first, several parties, and, finally, his whole army, towards the Delaware. But, failing in these attempts, to draw Washington from his camp, as though nothing further could be effected, on the 19th of June he ordered a precipitate retreat from Jersey. Having arrived at Amboy, the bridge designed for the Delaware was thrown hastily over to Staten Island, and all the heavy baggage, and many of the troops passed it. Even Washington was for once deceived. He ordered his army to the pursuit, and proceeded himself to Quibbletown, six miles nearer Amboy. Howe having thus at length succeeded in drawing Washington from his camp, recalled his troops during the night of the 25th, from the island to the continent; and the next day proceeded against the Americans in two parties—the right, or eastern, under Cornwallis, to proceed by Woodbridge to Scotch Plains—the left, under Howe, to go by Mettuckin. Howe was to attack the Americans at Quibbletown; Cornwallis, to gain the heights at Middlebrook.

Howe attempts to draw Washington from his camp.

Washington deceived by a feint, quits his camp.

June 26. After passing Middlebrook, Cornwallis attacked and defeated 700 American riflemen. The noise of the firing instantly convinced Washington of the design of the English. He with celerity regained his camp at Middlebrook, and detached parties to secure his left, or eastern pass, which Cornwallis had designed to take. Washington being again within his strong hold, Howe and Cornwallis retired to Amboy, and passed with their army to Staten Island.

SECTION V.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777.

[Continued.]

1777. GREAT preparations were now made by the English at Staten Island and New-York; but whether their object was to co-operate by the Hudson, with the Canadian army, or to conquer Philadelphia, was indeterminable.

July 10. On the night of July 10th, occurred the capture of General Prescott, then in command on Rhode Island. Colonel Barton, with forty country militia under his command, proceeded from Warwick, ten miles in their whale boats, landed between Newport and Bristol, marched a mile to Prescott's quarters, took the general from his bed, and conducted him with despatch to a place of safety on the main land.

Meantime great preparations were making for a descent upon the United States from Canada. The plan of dividing the states, by effecting a junction of the British army through lake Champlain and the Hudson, was, at the beginning of this year, looked to by the whole British nation, as the certain means of effecting the reduction of America. This plan had gained new favour in England, by the representations of General Burgoyne, an officer who had served under Carleton, and whose knowledge of American affairs was therefore undisputed. Burgoyne, by his importunities with the British ministry, obtained the object for which he had made a voyage to England. He was appointed to the command of all the troops in Canada, to the prejudice of Governor Carleton, and was furnished with an army and military stores. With these he arrived at Quebec in May. General Carleton exhi-

Burgoyne arrives with a large army at Quebec.

bited an honourable example of moderation and patriotism, by seconding Burgoyne in his preparations, with great diligence and energy. To increase the army, he exerted, not only his authority as governor, but also his influence among his numerous friends and partizans. Though himself averse to employing the savages, yet such being the orders of the British government, he aided in bringing to the field even a greater number than could be employed.

Burgoyne's army was provided with a formidable train of artillery. The principal officers who were to accompany him, were General Philips, who had distinguished himself in the German wars, Brigadiers Frazer and Powel; the Brunswick Major General Baron Reidesel, and Brigadier General Specht. The army consisted of 7,173 British and German troops, besides several thousands of Canadians and Indians.

Burgoyne's plan of operation was, that Col. St. Leger should proceed with a detachment by the St. Lawrence, Oswego, and fort Stanwix, to Albany. Burgoyne, proceeding by Champlain and the Hudson, was to meet St. Leger at Albany, and both join General Clinton at New-York.

His preparations completed, Burgoyne moved forward with his army, and made his first encampment on the western shore of lake Champlain, at the river Boquet. Here, in two instances, he betrayed that vanity which his biographers consider the characteristic weakness of his character. He made a speech to his Indian allies, in which, in terms of singular energy, and with an imposing manner, he endeavoured to persuade them to change their savage mode of warfare. He also published a proclamation, in which, by arguments, promises, and threats, (threats of savage extermination!) he seemed to expect that he should bring the republicans to the royal standard; as if words which he should speak, could change the natural character, and established manners of a nation: or those which he could write, could have power to subvert the purpose of men, whom all the previous measures of his government had failed to intimidate.

June 20.

Burgoyne encamps at the river Boquet, and issues a proclamation.

St. Leger had united with Sir John Johnson, and having nearly 2,000 troops, including savages, they invested fort Stanwix, then commanded by Col. Gansevoort, on the 3d of August. Gen. Herkimer, having collected the militia, marched to the relief of Gansevoort; but he fell into an English ambuscade on the 6th of August, and was defeated and slain, with 400 of his troops. St.

Aug. 3.

St. Leger invests fort Stanwix.

Aug. 6

Gen. Herkimer is defeated.

Leger, wishing to profit by his victory, pressed upon the fort. In this perilous moment, Col. Willet and Lieut. Stockton left the fort, fighting their way through the English camp, and, eluding the Indians, they

arrived at German Flats, and proceeded to Albany, to alarm the country, and gain assistance.

Aug. 22.
St. Leger returns
to Montreal.

Gen. Schuyler, on hearing the danger of the fort, despatched Arnold to its relief. On hearing of his approach, the Indians, having previously become dissatisfied, mutinied, and compelled St. Leger to return to Montreal. On the way, they committed such depredations on the British troops, as to leave the impression that they were no less dangerous as allies than as enemies.

To preserve a connected view of the expedition of St. Leger, we have gone nearly two months ahead of the operations of Burgoyne. On the 30th of June, that general advanced to Crown Point, from

July 5
Burgoyne in
vests Ticonde
roga, which is
evacuated by
the Americans.

whence he proceeded to invest Ticonderoga, which was garrisoned by 3,000 men, under the command of Gen. St. Clair. This was a place of great natural strength, and much expense and labour had been bestowed upon its fortifications; but up to this period, a circumstance respecting it seems to have been strangely overlooked. It is commanded by an eminence in its neighbourhood, called mount Defiance. The troops of Burgoyne got possession of this height on the 5th of July, and St. Clair, finding the post no longer tenable, evacuated it on the same night. The garrison, separated into two divisions, were to proceed through Hubbardton to Skeenesborough. The first division, under St. Clair, left the fort in the night, two hours earlier than the second, under Colonel Francis. The stores and baggage, placed on board 200 batteaux, and conveyed by five armed galleys, were to meet the army at Skeenesborough.

July 7.
Disastrous af-
fairs at Hub-
bardton.

Gen. Frazer, with 850 of the British, pursued and attacked the division at Hubbardton, under Col. Francis, whose rear was commanded by Col. Warner. The Americans made a brave resistance, during which 130 of the enemy were killed; but the British, in the heat of the action, receiving a reinforcement under Reidesel, the republicans were forced to give way. They fled in every direction, spreading through the country the terror of the British arms. In this unfortunate action, the Americans lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, nearly 1,000 men. Many of the wounded perished in the woods. Col. Francis was among the slain.

July 12.
St. Clair reaches
fort Edward.

A part of the stores and armed galleys, which had been sent up the lake, fell into the hands of the British. St. Clair, on hearing of these disasters, did not pursue his intended route, but struck into the woods on his left. At Manchester, he was joined by the remnant of the vanquished division, conducted by Gen. Warner. After a distressing march, he reached

the camp of Gen. Schuyler, at fort Edward. Warner remained in Manchester, with a detachment, which proved of great importance in the affair, which shortly after occurred at Bennington.

Burgoyne, meanwhile, took possession of Skeenesborough ; and the American army, under Schuyler, retired from fort Edward to Saratoga, and, on the 13th of August, to the islands at the mouth of the Mohawk.

Schuyler retreats on the approach of Burgoyne.

This period of the history was gloomy to America, and triumphant to England. When the news of Burgoyne's successes reached that country, the ministers were every where felicitated on the success of their plans ; and rejoicings were made, as though their object was already attained. On the other hand, the Americans saw that the juncture was critical and alarming ; but their spirit rose with the occasion, and their exertions increased with their danger.

Gen. Schuyler, before leaving the northern positions, obstructed the roads, by breaking the bridges, and, in the only passable defiles, by cutting immense trees on both sides of the way, to fall cross and lengthwise. These, with their branches interwoven, presented to the enemy an almost insurmountable barrier.

Congress was aware of the great merits and exertions of Gen. Schuyler ; yet they found that the misfortunes of the army had, though undeservedly, made him unpopular ; and, therefore, it was necessary to supersede him, in order to make way for a leader, who should inspire a confidence that would draw volunteers to the service. Accordingly, Gen. Gates was appointed to the command, but did not arrive at the camp until the 21st of August. Lincoln also was ordered to the north, as were Arnold and Morgan, whose active spirits and brilliant achievements, it was hoped, would reanimate the dispirited troops. The celebrated patriot of Poland, Kosciuszko, was also in the army, as its chief engineer.

Schuyler superseded by Gates.

Burgoyne, having, with great expense of labour and time, opened a way for his army, from Skeenesborough to the Hudson, arrived at fort Edward, on the 30th of July.

July 30.
Burgoyne reaches fort Edward.

But being in a hostile country, he could obtain no provisions, but from Ticonderoga ; and these he was compelled to transport by the way of lake George. Learning that there was a large depot of provisions at Bennington, he sent 500 men, under Lieut. Col. Baum, a brave German officer, to seize them. Gen. Stark, with a body of New Hampshire militia, was on his march to join Gen. Schuyler, when hearing of Baum's approach, he recruited his forces from the neighbouring militia, and, with 1,600 men, met him four miles from Bennington. After a sharp conflict, Baum was killed, and his party defeated. The militia had dispersed, to seek for plunder, when a British reinforcement of 500

Aug. 16.
British defeated at Bennington.

men, under Col. Breyman, arrived. Fortunately for the Americans, the Green Mountain Boys, under Col. Warner, appeared at the same time, and the British were again defeated, and compelled to retreat. Their loss in both engagements was 600, the greater part of whom were taken prisoners.* The republican loss was inconsiderable.

The victory at Bennington was important in its consequences, as it proved the turning of that tide of fortune which had heretofore set so strongly in favour of the British arms. It embarrassed, weakened, and dispirited Burgoyne, while it revived the drooping hearts of the Americans, and gave the impulse of hope to their exertions. This was strengthened by an impulse of another kind, but operating in the same direction. A cry of vengeance for murder was raised against the Bri-

Murder of Miss M'Crea. tish, on account of an atrocious act, committed by their Indian allies. Miss M'Crea, an interesting girl of fort

Edward, was betrothed to Captain Jones, then in the army of Burgoyne, which had now approached near to that place. Impatient for his marriage, the lover sent a party of Indians, as the safest convoy he could procure for his bride, across the woods to the British camp; having secured, as he thought, their fidelity, by promise of reward. Confiding love prevailed, in her mind, over her strong fears of these terrible guides; and the unfortunate girl left, by stealth, the kind shelter of her paternal roof. Meantime, her anxious lover, to make her safety more sure, sent out another party, with like promises. The two met; and the last demanded that the lady should be committed to them. Rather than give her up, and thus, as they supposed, lose their reward, the barbarians tied to a tree, their innocent and helpless victim, and shot her dead. Instead of his bride, the bridegroom received the bleeding tresses, which the murderers had cut from her dying head. The sight withered and blasted him; and, after lingering a few years, he died.

The complicated miseries of a battle crowd the picture, and confuse the mind, and thus often produce less sympathy than a single case of distress. In the present instance, every man could feel, what it would have been, or would be to him, to have his bride torn, as it were, from his arms, shrieking, and murdered in the hour of his love and expectation; and every pains was used to awaken these sympathies to their

* After the battle of Bennington, the Hessian prisoners were carried into the village, and distributed into public buildings and out-houses. The meeting house was filled to crowding. The next day, an alarm was suddenly given to the women of the village, to take their children and flee. The Hessians, it was said, were rising on their guard. They were rushing in all directions out of the meeting house. The guard fired, and killed five of them. But the fears of the inhabitants were suddenly changed to compassion. The galleries were giving way. In danger of being crushed to death, the unfortunate men rushed out, and met the fire of a guard, who could not understand from their foreign speech, their explanation of the disorder. This anecdote was related to me by a venerable matron, then a young lady and an inhabitant of Bennington.

utmost extent, and turn them against the British commander, who had let loose such bloodhounds upon the land. There was a general rising in the northern region, and it seemed, as if every man, who could bear arms, was rushing to the camp of Gates, to avenge the death of the young M'Crea, no less than to deliver his country.

The army at the islands, having been thus reinforced, and now amounting to 5,000, Gates left that encampment, the 8th of September, and proceeding to Stillwater, occupied Behmus heights.

Gates encamps
at Stillwater.

On the 12th, Burgoyne crossed the Hudson, and on the 14th, encamped at Saratoga, about three miles distant from the American army. An obstinate and bloody battle occurred at Stillwater, on the 19th. At first it was partial, commencing with a skirmish between the advanced parties. Each side sent successive reinforcements to their

Burgoyne en-
camps at Sara-
toga.

Sep. 19.
Battle of Still-
water.

own combatants, until nearly the whole were in action. The American combatants took advantage of a wood which lay between the two camps, and poured from it a fire too deadly to be withstood. The British lines broke; and the Americans, rushing from their coverts, pursued them to an eminence, where their flanks being supported, they rallied; charging in their turn, they drove the Americans into the woods, from which they again poured a deadly fire, and again the British fell back. At every charge, the British artillery fell into the hands of the Americans, who could neither carry it off, or turn it on the enemy. At length night came on, and to fight longer, would be to attack indiscriminately friends and foes. The Americans retired to their camp, having lost between 3 and 400 men; the loss of the British was 500. Both sides claimed the victory; but the advantage gained was clearly on the side of the Americans.

Skirmishes, frequent and animated, occurred between this and the 7th of October, when a general battle was fought at Saratoga. At this time, the right wing of Gen. Gates occupied the brow of the hill, near the river. This camp was in the form of the segment of a large circle, the convex side towards the enemy.

Oct. 7
Battle near
Saratoga.

Gen. Burgoyne's left was on the river, his right extending at right angles to it, across the low grounds, about two hundred yards, to a range of steep heights, occupied by his choicest troops. The guard of his camp upon the high grounds, was given to Brigadiers Hamilton and Specht; that of the redoubts and plain, near the river, to Brigadier Gole. Burgoyne commanded in person the centre detachment of 1,500, and was seconded by Philips, Reidesel, and Frazer. His left flank, composed of grenadiers, was commanded by Maj. Ackland; his right consisting of infantry, by the earl of Balcarras.

The Americans, under Gen. Poor, attacked the left flank and front of the British ; and, at the same time, Col. Morgan attacked their right. The action became general. The efforts of the combatants were desperate. Burgoyne, and his officers, fought like men who were defending, at the last cast, their military reputation ; Gates and his army, like those who were deciding whether their native land should be free, or be-

British defeated. come the prey of invaders. The invading army gave way, in the short space of fifty-two minutes. The defenders of the soil pursued them to their entrenchments, forced the guard, and killed Col. Breyman, its commander. Arnold, the tiger of the American army, whose track was marked by carnage, headed a small band, stormed their works, and followed them into their camp. But his horse was killed under him ; he was himself wounded ; and darkness was coming on. He retired ; and thus was reserved to another day, the utter ruin of the British army.

The loss in killed and wounded, was great on both sides, but especially on the part of the British, of whom a considerable number were made prisoners. Gen. Frazer, whose character was as elevated as his rank, received a mortal wound.

Oct. 8. The Americans had now an opening into the British camp. They rested on their arms the night after the battle, on the field which they had so bravely won ; determined to pursue their victory with returning light. But Burgoyne, aware of the advantage which they had gained, effected, with admirable order, a change of his ground. The artillery, the camp, and its appurtenances, were all removed before morning, to the heights. The British army, in this position, had the river in its rear, and its two wings displayed along the hills upon its right bank. Gates was too wise to attack his enemy in this position, and expose to another risk, what now wanted nothing but vigilance to make certain. He now made arrangements to enclose his enemy, which Burgoyne perceiving, put his army in motion at nine o'clock at night, and removed to Saratoga, six miles up the river. He was obliged to abandon his hospital with 300 sick and wounded, to the humanity of the Americans.

Burgoyne now made efforts in various directions, to effect a retreat, but in every way he had been anticipated. He found himself in a hostile and foreign country, hemmed in by a foe, whose army constantly increasing, already amounted to four times his own wasting numbers. The boats, laden with his supplies, were taken, and his provisions were failing. He had early communicated with Sir Henry Clinton at New-York, and had urged his co-operation. More recently, when his fortune began to darken, he had entreated him for speedy aid ; stating, that, at the most, his army could not hold out beyond the 12th of October. The 12th arrived, without the expected succour. His army was in the utmost distress, and Burgoyne capitulated on the seventeenth.

The army surrendered amounted to 5,752 men, which, together with the troops lost before, by various disasters, made up the whole British loss to nine thousand two hundred and thirteen. There also fell into the hands of the Americans, thirty-five brass field pieces, and 5,000 muskets. It was stipulated, that the British should pile their arms at the word of command, given by their own officers, march out of their camp with the honours of war, and have free passage across the Atlantic ; they, on their part, agreeing not to serve again in North America, during the war. They were treated with delicacy by the Americans. Their officers, especially their commander, received many kind attentions. The worthy Gen. Schuyler hospitably entertained Burgoyne, at his own house ; although much of his private property, especially an elegant villa, had been destroyed by command of that officer.

Oct. 17.
Burgoyne surrenders his army.

On hearing of the defeat of Burgoyne, the British garrison at Ticonderoga, returned to Canada, and not a foe remained in the northern section of the Union. Thus ended an expedition from which the British had hoped, and the Americans had feared so much.

Garrison of Ticonderoga retreat to Canada.

The effects of their success were highly propitious to the cause of the republicans. It weakened and discouraged the enemy, gave them a supply of artillery and stores, and, what was still more important, raised them in their own estimation, and in that of foreign nations.

Connected in some degree, with Burgoyne's invasion, was the predatory excursion up the North River, in which the British took forts Clinton and Montgomery, and burned the village of Esopus, now Kingston. This excursion, commanded by Sir Henry Clinton, who was accompanied by Tryon and Vaughn, appears to have had the double object of opening a free navigation for the British vessels, up the river to Albany, and of making a division of the American forces, which were now concentrated in opposition to Burgoyne, and thus giving him an opportunity to escape. Had Clinton taken this step earlier, he might possibly have effected the latter object. As it was, Burgoyne had notice of the taking of the forts, and the advance of Clinton, just after he had made a verbal agreement to sign the articles of capitulation ; when neither his honour, nor his humanity, would permit him longer to await the expected succour.

Oct. 6.
Forts Clinton and Montgomery taken by the British.

Oct. 15.
Kingston burned

Clinton, on hearing that Burgoyne had surrendered, and that Gates was advancing to attack him, evacuated and dismantled the forts which he had taken, and retreated to New-York, experiencing no other permanent result of his expedition, than the execrations of a plundered people, and the character from having revived, in a civilized age, barbarian atrocities.

SECTION VI.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777.

[Continued.]

1777.

HAVING now given a connected view of the momentous operations at the north, we go back nearly three months, in the order of time, to take a brief sketch of the less decisive transactions in the middle states.

Admiral and Gen. Howe, intent on the capture of Philadelphia, left Sandy Hook, on the 23d of July. Sailing up Chesapeake bay, they disembarked their troops, amounting to 18,000, on the 25th of August, at the head of the Elk river, fifty miles southwest of Philadelphia. Washington, apprised of their movements, crossed the Delaware, determined to oppose them, notwithstanding his army was greatly diminished by the powerful detachments he had sent to check the alarming progress of Burgoyne.

Accompanied by generals Greene, Sullivan, Wayne, and Stirling, he approached the enemy, until he reached Gray's Hill, in front of the British commanders, with whom were generals Knyphausen and Cornwallis. He then retreated across the Brandywine, and encamped on the rising grounds which extend from Chadsford, in a direction from northwest to southeast; and here, (the shallow stream of the Brandywine being between the armies,) he awaited an attack from the British; well knowing that nothing but a victory could now save Philadelphia. Early in the morning, on the 11th of September, the British army being drawn up in two divisions, commenced the expected assault. Agreeably to the plan of Howe, the right wing, commanded by Knyphausen, made a feint of crossing the Brandywine, at Chadsford; while the left, commanded by Cornwallis, took a circuitous route up the Brandywine, and crossed, though not without opposition, at the forks. Knyphausen, with some fighting and much noise, had occupied the attention of the Americans. Washington, learning the approach of Cornwallis, determined to press forward in the centre and on the left; and if possible, divide the army, and cut off Knyphausen. The false intelligence, that Cornwallis was not approaching, prevented his executing this bold design, which might have changed the fate of the day. He had already despatched some of his officers, whom, by this false intelligence, he was induced to recal. Thus time was consumed, and Cornwallis fell upon the Americans

Sep. 11.
Battle of Bran-
dywine.

while they were in some measure unprepared to receive him. They, however, defended themselves with great valour ; and the carnage was terrible. But they, at length, were forced to give way.

Washington ordered to their aid, the reserve, commanded by Greene ; but it was too late, and the most it could effect was to cover the retreat of the fugitives. Knyphausen now began in earnest to effect his passage at Chadsford. The Americans withstood bravely ; but finding the remainder of the army vanquished, they fled in confusion, and abandoned to the enemy their artillery and ammunition. These fugitives also found a shelter within the lines of Greene, who was last to quit the field of battle. The Americans lost 300 killed, 600 wounded, and 400 taken prisoners. The British loss, in killed and wounded, was less than five hundred. This battle was distinguished by the exertions of foreign officers. The heroic La Fayette, while endeavouring to rally the fugitives, was wounded in the leg. Another French officer of distinction, the Baron St. Ovary, was made prisoner ; and Count Pulaski, a celebrated Polander, displayed a courage which congress afterwards rewarded with the rank of brigadier general.

Americans are defeated.

On the night succeeding the battle, the Americans retreated to Chester, and the next day to Philadelphia. The following day, a detachment of British troops proceeded to Wilmington, and took prisoner the governor of Delaware. They seized considerable property, public and private ; among which was a quantity of coined money.

They retreat to Philadelphia.

Not disheartened by this defeat, Washington determined to risk another battle for the defence of the capital ; and accordingly, repassed the Schuylkill, and met the enemy at Goshen ; but a violent shower of rain wet the powder in the ill-constructed cartridge boxes of the Americans, and compelled the commander to defer the engagement. The republicans were unfortunate in another attempt to annoy the enemy. Washington had ordered Wayne, with a detachment of 1,500 men, into the rear of the British. This detachment was surprised ; and a night scene of shocking slaughter ensued, in which 300 of the Americans were cut off.

Sept. 20.
Gen. Wayne is surprised by the British.

Howe now made a movement, which placed Washington in a situation where he could not interpose his army between the enemy and the capital, without exposing to destruction the extensive magazine of provisions and military stores which had been established at Reading. Notwithstanding the clamours of the populace, he prudently abandoned the city, rather than sacrifice the stores, or risk another battle, while the odds were so much against him.

Congress, finding themselves insecure in Philadelphia, adjourned to Lancaster, to which place the public archives and magazines were removed. They again in-

Congress adjourn to Lancaster.

vested Washington with the same dictatorial powers which were intrusted to him after the reverses in New-Jersey.

On the 23d of September, Sir William Howe crossed the Schuylkill, and proceeded to Germantown. On the 26th, a detachment of the British army, under Cornwallis, entered the American capital, while the main body remained at Germantown. The American army, now consisting of eleven thousand men, were conducted by Washington along the left bank of the Schuylkill, and now lay encamped eleven miles from Germantown, at Schippack creek.

Lord Howe had now consummated an event to which he had looked as decisive of the contest. But far from being subdued, the Americans were not even disheartened. They knew that the army of Washington, when it should have received its reinforcements, could cut off the enemy's supplies on the side of Pennsylvania. If, therefore, they could prevent their receiving them by water, they would soon be compelled to evacuate the city. For this object, they had created batteries on Mud Island, and also at Red Bank and Billing's Point, on the Jersey shore; along which places they had sunk ranges of frames, to impede the navigation of the river. The British, sensible of the importance of a free communication with the sea, by means of the Delaware, sent Col. Stirling, with a detachment, to attack Billing's Point, and clear away the obstructions which the Americans had placed in the river; in which enterprise, they were ultimately successful.

The American commander, knowing that the army of Howe was weakened by the detachments under Cornwallis and Stirling, determined, if possible, to surprise him. He accordingly left his camp at Schippack creek, at seven in the evening. The approach of the Ame-

<p>Oct. 4. Battle of Ger- mantown.</p> <hr/>	<p>ricans was discovered by the British patrols. Washington's army commenced the attack about sunrise. Fortune at first favoured the arms of the Americans, and</p>
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<hr/>	<p>the British were compelled to retreat. But Col. Musgrove, having thrown several companies into a stone house, they so annoyed the Americans, that the pursuit was delayed. A part of the Pennsylvania militia did not perform the duty assigned them. A thick fog came on, which caused confusion in the American ranks. The British, thus enabled to recover from the first attack, aroused to fresh ex-</p>
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<p>Americans defeated.</p> <hr/>	<p>ertions; and the Americans were defeated. Their loss was 200 killed; among whom was Gen. Nash, of North Carolina; 600 wounded, and 400 taken prisoners. The British loss was 500; among their killed were colonels Agnew and Bird.</p>
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The American army, with all its artillery, now retreated twenty miles to Perkiomy creek, and from thence, having received a reinforcement of 500 militia, Washington advanced to his old camp, at Schip-

pack creek. Although the army had not effected what its commander had hoped, yet so much skill and bravery had been displayed, that its reputation was enhanced.

Washington returns to Schip-pack creek.

Congress voted their thanks to the commander, and his officers and soldiers, except Gen. Stephens, who was cashiered for misconduct on the retreat.

A few days after the battle, the royal army removed from Germantown to Philadelphia. Scarcity of provisions prevented Howe from following the Americans, and he wished to co-operate in the design of opening the navigation of the Delaware. Indeed, this measure became necessary to the preservation of his army, which could not draw subsistence from the adjacent country ; so effectually did the menacing attitude of Washington's army operate, and also the edict of congress, which pronounced the penalty of death upon any citizen who should dare to afford him supplies. Thus situated, the British general found, as Dr. Franklin wittily remarked, that, "instead of taking Philadelphia, Philadelphia had taken him."

Howe enters Philadelphia.

To succeed in opening a communication with their fleet, it was necessary that the British should possess themselves of Mud Island, which was defended by fort Mifflin, and fort Mercer, on Red Bank. Accordingly, a body of Hessians, under Col. Donop, marched down the Jersey shore, and attacked fort Mercer with great impetuosity. It was defended by 400 men, under Col. Greene. The Americans withdrew within the fort, and made there a vigorous defence. The Hessian commander was mortally wounded, and his troops were repulsed with the loss of 500 men. The remainder returned to Philadelphia. Their next attack was made upon Mud Island, by their shipping.

Oct. 22.
Attack on Red Bank.

This proved, at first, no more successful ; and the British lost two warlike vessels in the attempt. The Americans were, however, at length dislodged by an attack from an unexpected quarter. The British found means to erect a battery on Province Island, a little above Mud Island, which commanded fort Mifflin. Their post thus becoming untenable, the Americans withdrew in the night from Mud Island, to fort Mercer, on Red Bank.

Nov. 16.
Attack on Mud Island.

To attack this fort, the British commander despatched Cornwallis with a strong detachment. In obedience to his orders, that general crossed the Schuylkill, followed down the Delaware to Chester, below the fort, then crossing to Billing's Point, and receiving a reinforcement from New-York, he thence ascended the river to attack the fort in the rear. The Americans, apprised of his approach, evacuated the fort in the rear. The American shipping, deprived of the protection of the

Nov. 18.
Americans evacuate fort Mercer.

forts, was now in great danger. Some vessels, under cover of night, passed the battery of Philadelphia, and sought safety further up the river; but the English taking measures to render the escape of the remainder impracticable, the crews abandoned their vessels to the number of seventeen, and consumed them by fire. Lord Howe had now opened the navigation of the Delaware, so that he could communicate with his brother, the admiral.

In the meanwhile, the victorious troops of the north had reinforced the main army of the republicans; and Washington advanced within fourteen miles of Philadelphia to White Marsh, his army consisting of 12,000 regulars, and 3,000 militia. Howe marched his army within three miles of his lines, and manœuvred to draw him from his entrenchments; but Washington, though he did not shun the battle, chose to

British army go into winter quarters at Philadelphia.

receive it within his lines. Howe finding him too cautious to be drawn out of his camp, and too strong to be attacked in it, withdrew his army and retired to winter quarters at Philadelphia.

Dec. 11.

Washington retires to winter quarters at Valley Forge.

Distress of the American army.

Washington, on the 11th of December, left White Marsh, and retired to Valley Forge. Hardly was the army established in their winter quarters, when the magazines were found to contain scarcely a single day's provision. As to their clothing, some few had one shirt, some the remnant of one, the greater part none at all.

Barefooted, on the frozen ground, their feet cut by ice, they left their tracks in blood. A few only had the luxury of a blanket at night. More than 3,000 were excused from duty, on account of cold and nakedness. Straw could not be obtained, and the soldiers, who, during the day, were benumbed with cold, and enfeebled by hunger, had at night no other bed, than the humid ground. Diseases attacked them; and the hospitals were replenished, as rapidly as the dead were carried out. The unsuitableness of the buildings, and the multitude of sick that crowded them, caused an insupportable fetor. Hospital fever ensued. It could not be remedied by change of linen, for none could be had; nor by salubrious diet, as even the coarsest was not attainable; nor by medicines, as even the worst were wholly wanting. The hospitals resembled more receptacles for the dying, than places of refuge for the sick.

The patience with which these patriotic votaries of freedom endured such complicated evils, is, we believe, without a parallel in history. To go to battle, cheered by the trumpet and the drum, with victory or the speedy bed of honour before the soldier, requires a heroic effort; much more to starve, to freeze, and to lie down and die, in silent obscurity. Sparta knew the names of the three hundred who fell for her at the pass of Thermopylæ; but America knows not the names of the hundreds who perished for her in the camp of Valley Forge.

SECTION VII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1778.

THE melancholy state to which the army was reduced, was owing to several causes. The bills of credit had diminished to one-fourth their nominal of value. A scarcity of linen cloth and leather prevailing throughout the country, the commissaries had contracted for supplies at ten per cent. above the current price. This proceeding, congress refused to sanction; but required that supplies should be furnished, and the bills received as specie. The consequence was, that these articles could not be procured. This was principally owing to the depreciation of paper money, and the advanced price on all articles of consumption; hence, far from being able to live, as became their rank, the officers had not even the means of providing for their subsistence; and many had already expended their private fortunes, to maintain a respectable appearance. Those who handed in their resignations were not the most worthless, but the bravest, most distinguished, and most spirited; who, disdaining the degraded situation in which they were placed, left the army to escape it.

1778.

Causes of the distress of the army.

This example of defection, set by his beloved officers, more than any of the other disasters of the army, wounded the parental heart of Washington. In the midst of these anxieties, that great man was called to suffer from those common foes of distinguished merit—envy and calumny. Intrigues were set in motion against him; the object of which was to give him so many occasions of disgust, that he should of himself retire from the head of the army; and thus make room for the promotion of Gates: whose success in the affair of Burgoyne, had raised his reputation to the highest pitch. Among the leaders of this combination, was Gen. Conway, a wily and restless intriguer. He besieged all the members of congress with insinuations that there was no order in the American camp, and that body, at length, appointed him inspector-general. Pennsylvania addressed a remonstrance to congress, censuring the measures of the commander-in-chief. The same was done by the members from Massachusetts, among whom was Samuel Adams. They were not pleased that the whole command devolved on a Virginian, to the exclusion of their generals, who were, in their opinion, equal, if not superior, to Washington. A board of war was created under Gates and Mifflin, both of whom were thought to be among the authors of the machinations against Washington. With the advice of this board,

Intrigues against Washington.

Expedition
planned against
Canada.

congress planned an expedition against Canada. Washington was not consulted, but he was ordered to detach La Fayette, with certain regiments, to perform the service. This order was promptly obeyed; but what he did, was all that was done. La Fayette was recalled from Albany, and the expedition was abandoned.

Public indignation
against the
enemies of
Washington.

It is impossible to express, with what indignation the whole army and the best citizens were filled, on hearing the machinations that were in agitation against their honoured chief. A universal cry arose against the intriguers. Conway, superseded by Baron Steuben, a Prussian officer, dared not show himself among the exasperated soldiers, and Samuel Adams deemed it prudent to keep aloof from the army. Congress, thus made to see how deeply rooted the commander was in the affections of the army and people, and knowing also that he ranked high at foreign courts, became at length sensible of their error, and restored to Washington a confidence which he had so hardly earned, and to which he was so justly entitled.

During these machinations, Washington never once turned from his high career of suffering virtue, to notice his personal enemies. He had been indefatigable in urging congress to stop the defection of the officers, by securing to them some reward for their services. In accordance with his advice, a law was passed allowing them half pay for seven years after the close of the war. He also urged congress and the different state governments, to make early preparations for the ensuing campaign, that it might be commenced at the opening of the spring, before the British reinforcements could arrive. But decisions are of necessity tardily made in popular governments; hence, what ought to have been ready in the beginning of spring, was but scantily provided during the summer.

Predatory ex-
cursions of the
British.

These delays might have been fatal to the army, had the British been in a condition to take the field early in the season. As it was, they contented themselves with sending out their light troops to scour the country in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia. In March, a party of their soldiers massacred, in cool blood, while crying for quarter, the soldiers who were stationed at the bridges of Quinton and Hancock.

Near the same time, another party undertook an expedition up the Delaware. They destroyed the magazines at Bordentown, and the vessels which the Americans had drawn up the river, between Philadelphia and Trenton.

May.
Lafayette de-
feats a British
detachment.

In May, 2,000 men under La Fayette were posted at Baron Hill, about eight or ten miles in front of the army, at Valley Forge, to form an advanced guard, and be in readiness to annoy the British rear, in case they at

tempted to retreat to New-York. The whole British army came out of Philadelphia, and a detachment of 5,000 men, under Gen. Grant, was sent to surprise and destroy the force under La Fayette. In the beginning of the engagement, Grant obtained some advantage, but at length the skill and activity of La Fayette baffled his exertions. He returned to Philadelphia, while La Fayette removed to Valley Forge.

The Americans were no where more successful than in the depredations which their swift sailing privateers made upon the British commerce. With these they infested every sea, even those about the British islands ; and often performed deeds of almost incredible boldness. Since 1776, they had already captured 500 of the British vessels.

Success of American privateers.

Early in the season, Sir Henry Clinton arrived in Philadelphia to supersede Howe in the command of the British forces ; that general having resigned his commission and returned to England.

The news of the capture of Burgoyne caused a deep sensation throughout Europe, and effected the politics of several of its cabinets. It produced, however, its chief effects in England and France. The English people were astonished and afflicted ; their sanguine calculations were defeated ; their boastful predictions had failed ; and mortified and perplexed, they knew not what course next to pursue. The generals and soldiers who had fought in America were not inferior to any that England or Europe could produce. These the Americans had vanquished. Of what, then, might they not be capable in future, when they should have derived new confidence from successes, and consolidated their state by practice and experience ; the garrisons of Canada were weak, and the Americans might turn their victorious army against them ; the Canadians, following the example of the Americans, might also revolt from Britain. Enlistments, both in America and England, became daily more difficult, and the Germans would only furnish troops to fulfil the engagement already made ; and for the few recruits which they could raise, several of the German princes refused a passage through their dominions. France had long, by secret intrigues, favoured the cause of America, and the perplexities of the British ministry were doubled, by the belief that she would soon openly avow herself ; and thus her ancient and inveterate foe be joined in the contest with her alienated colonies.

England is perplexed by the capture of Burgoyne.

When the difficulties of America commenced, the finances of France had been diminished by preceding wars, and her marine enfeebled by neglect. The navy of England was powerful, her colonies in different quarters numerous and wealthy, and productive of an immense revenue. France, jealous of her rival, viewed the discontents in America with pleasure. She did not at first espouse the quarrel knowing that at the moment she should declare

Policy of France in reference to America.

herself, the British ministry, by acquiescing in the concessions demanded by the Americans, might instantly disarm them, and France would find herself alone, burdened with a war without motive or object. The declaration of independence removed this objection; yet though France would rather see America independent, than reconciled with her parent state, she relished better than either a long war between them, which should waste both England and her colonies. This being her policy, she amused the British ministers with protestations of friendship. She encouraged the Americans with secret, but scanty and uncertain succours; and excited their hopes by promises of future co-operation. These promises, however, as they were vague and unofficial, might at any time have been disowned by the government. Wearied out and disgusted, the agents of congress urged the cabinet of Versailles to come to a final decision; but they avoided it, alleging a variety of excuses. Unable to accomplish their views with France, and discovering no other prospect of safety, the Americans proposed to England the recognition of their independence. This point conceded, they would have yielded in all others, to such conditions as should tend to save the honour of the mother country; but this proposition was rejected.

The capture of Burgoyne gave new ardour to these patriots, and new hopes and fears to France and England. The American negotiators now endeavoured to give jealousy to the French cabinet, by pretending a disposition to form an alliance with England; and disquietude to the English ministry, by the appearance of courting the strictest union with

Feb. 6. France concludes a treaty with America. France. This policy induced the French ministers to declare themselves openly; and they well knew that they should be warmly seconded in this measure by every class of the French citizens; with whom the cause of America was exceedingly popular. On the 6th of February, France, by treaty, acknowledged the independence of America. In this treaty "it was declared, that if war should break out between France and England during the existence of that with the United States, it should be made a common cause; and that neither of the contracting parties should conclude either truce or peace with Great Britain, without the formal consent of the other; and they mutually engaged not to lay down their arms until the independence of the United States should have been formally or tacitly assured, by the treaty or treaties, which should terminate the war." The treaty was signed, on behalf of France, by M. Gerard; and on the part of the United States, by Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee. On the 20th of March, the American commissioners were received at the court of France, as the representatives of a sister nation; an event, which was considered in

Europe as the most important which had occurred in the annals of America, since its discovery by Columbus.

In the British parliament, a proposal was brought forward by the ministers, to send commissioners to America empowered to grant all that its colonies had asked before the war, on condition of their returning to their former allegiance. This measure was warmly opposed, and its ill success foretold. It is, said its opposers, either too little or too much : too little, if we wish to make peace in earnest ; too much, if we expect to continue the war. If the Americans refused any other conditions, than independence, when they were single-handed and depressed by misfortunes, surely all others will now be rejected. Why not at once concede that independence which America has already acquired, and is able to maintain. She will then doubtless prefer our alliance to that of France, and in our coming contest with that wily nation, we shall have her assistance instead of her hostility. Such in substance was the language of the opposition ; but the councils of the ministry prevailed. The earl of Carlisle, Governor Johnstone, and William Eden were appointed commissioners. The ministry, as the result sufficiently proves, had other than the ostensible objects in view, in sending these men to America. They were to make an attempt to bribe, corrupt, and divide the people.

Parliament
sends three com-
missioners to
America.

The British, highly exasperated against the French, on account of their interference, immediately made preparations to attack that nation at sea. To the astonishment of England, it was found that France was now able to cope with her on that element. When the difficulties in America commenced, France had directed its attention to the increase of its marine ; and to provide good officers, seamen of the merchant shipping were employed in the royal navy. In 1772, 1775, 1776, fleets, as schools of practice, were sent out, under Counts D'Orvilliers, De Guichen, and Duchffault. The French marine had, in fact, now become equal to the English.

Attention of
France to its
marine.

On the second of May, arrived the long expected treaty with France. It was brought over by the French frigate *Le Sensible*. This frigate brought Silas Deane, who had been recalled, and also M. Gerard, the minister from France, to the United States. She left Brest the 8th of March, and arrived at Casco bay on the 2d of May. The 6th of August, M Gerard was received publicly by congress, at Philadelphia.

May 2.
Treaty with
France arrives.

Carlisle, Eden, and Johnstone arrived at Philadelphia on the 9th of June. The concessions offered, were, as was predicted, too late ; and congress refused to negotiate on any other terms, than the recognition of their independence, and the removal of all the British forces. The

commissioners next resorted to the expedient of disseminating in the country a multitude of writings, in which they censured congress as requiring what was unjust, and injurious to America. They represented the alliance with France, as associated with meanness, while they extolled the generosity and magnanimity of England.

Intrigues of the
British commis-
sioners.

Johnstone had formerly resided in the colonies ; and afterwards, as a member of parliament, he had espoused the American cause. Availing himself of the influence which these circumstances had given him, he approached many influential republicans ; and, while he flattered them for their abilities and conduct, he adroitly insinuated that, if the royal authority could again be established, their merits would be rewarded by wealth, titles, and honours. In some cases attempts at direct bribery were discovered :—a lady was employed by Johnstone, to offer to Gen. Reed, if he would aid the royal cause, ten thousand pounds sterling, and any office in the colonies, within the king's gift. " I am not," said Reed, " worth purchasing ; but, such as I am, the king of England is not rich enough to buy me."

In some instances, Johnstone had the indiscretion to write. The indignant patriots brought forward his letters, which contained the evidence of his base intrigues, and laid them before congress. That body indignantly forbade all further communication with the commissioners. The popular writers of the times, among whom were Dayton, of South Carolina, and Thomas Paine, met, and confuted their insinuations. Public opinion overwhelmed them with opprobrium ; and this abortive attempt, like former similar ones, served only to show to the British ministry, the stability of that union which they now vainly endeavoured to shake

SECTION VIII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1778.

[Continued.]

June 18.
British army
evacuate Phi-
ladelphia.

About the 5th of June, the British took measures to evacuate Philadelphia. This they accomplished on the morning of the 18th, their army proceeding through New Jersey towards New-York.

Washington immediately put his camp, at Valley Forge, in motion, and sent out a detachment to collect the New Jersey militia, in order

to harass their rear. He thought it would be wise to bring the British to a general engagement, but this opinion was contrary to that of the majority of his officers. He, however, persisted, and, following with his whole army, an engagement was brought about at Monmouth, or Freehold, on the 28th, in which the Americans had the advantage. The loss of the English was 700, that of the Americans, much less. Though both sides claimed the victory, yet historians agree in awarding it to the republicans, as they remained masters of the field of battle.

June 28.
Battle of Monmouth.

It was at the commencement of this engagement, that the incident occurred, which was the cause of Gen. Lee's being censured, and suspended one year from his command. By his own request, he had been associated with Gen. La Fayette, in the command of the van. After he had attacked the British, he thought the ground in his rear more favourable to the formation of his lines; and he made, in some haste, a retrograde motion. Washington met the retreating troops; and finding that Lee was abandoning a ground which he had commanded him to take, and endangering the army by an appearance of flight, the commander inquired with sternness, what he meant; and gave orders himself for forming the battalion. In the course of the day, he employed Lee; who, during the remainder of this hard fought battle, displayed such courage and military conduct, that, had he not thought proper afterwards to write to the commander disrespectful letters, on the events of the battle, Washington would have taken no further notice of his irregular behaviour.

Night separated the combatants; and Washington and his soldiers rested upon their arms; intending to renew the conflict the succeeding day: but Clinton silently decamped in the night. In the morning, he was several miles distant; and moving through Middletown to Sandy Hook, he finally crossed over to New-York.

Clinton removes to New-York.

On the 1st of July, the American commander, leaving Morgan's dragoons in lower Jersey, proceeded with his army towards the Hudson.

Washington proceeds to the Hudson.

A French fleet, consisting of twelve ships of the line and six frigates, was now sent to the aid of America, commanded by the Count D'Estaing. The admiral left

French fleet arrives under D'Estaing.

Toulon on the 18th of April, with the intention of blockading the British in the Delaware. He entered the mouth of the river, on the 8th of June; but finding that Admiral Howe had left Philadelphia for New-York, he proceeded to that place, designing to engage him there; but the size of his ships prevented his passing the bar between Sandy Hook and Long Island.

Franklin appointed minister to France.

On the 14th of September, Benjamin Franklin, still in France, was invested with the dignity and powers of minister plenipotentiary.

Expedition against Rhode Island.

Washington, wishing to derive the utmost advantage from the presence of the French fleet, directed an expedition against Rhode Island, for which he detached a force of 10,000 troops, under the command of Gen. Sullivan; with whom he afterwards associated generals Greene and La Fayette. The force to which this army was opposed, consisted of 6,000 troops, which were stationed at Newport, and commanded by Gen. Pigott.

Sullivan had, with the advice of Washington, concerted a plan of operations with the French admiral D'Estaing, who arrived off Newport, on the 25th of July. Sullivan's army had taken post near Providence, and he had reasonable expectations, that, with the aid of the French, he should be able to make himself master of the whole force under Pigott. The fleet was to enter the harbour of Newport, and land the French troops on the north part of the island on which that city is situated; while the Americans were to land at the same time, under cover of the guns of a frigate, on the opposite coast. On the 8th of August, Gen. Sullivan joined Gen. Greene at Tiverton, and the descent was to be made the next day. The fleet presented itself. Some militia, who were to join the army, failed to come at the expected hour, and Sullivan represented to the French admiral, the necessity of a short delay. On the morning of the ninth, Sullivan crossed the east passage, and landed on the north end of Rhode Island. On the tenth, the fleet of Lord Howe appeared in sight, and D'Estaing left Sullivan

Aug. 15.
Sullivan besieges
Newport.

to give chase to the British admiral, promising to return to his assistance. The crafty Howe led him on, and both fleets were soon out of sight. On the 15th, Sullivan commenced the siege of Newport, still believing that he

should have the promised aid of the French fleet. Great was his chagrin and disappointment, when D'Estaing returned in a shattered condition; and no entreaties could prevail on him to remain, but on the 22d, he sailed to Boston to refit. Thus

Aug. 22.
D'Estaing sails
for Boston.

deserted by his allies, one half of his army, which consisted of militia, refused to remain, and encounter the

danger, to which he was now exposed, of an attack from the British at New-York.

Aug. 28.
Sullivan leaves
the siege, and,

Thus weakened, he raised the siege of Newport, on the 28th, and retired to a commanding situation on the north part of the island. The enemy followed, and, on the

Aug. 29,
Has an action
with the British.

29th, attacked his army. After a sharp conflict of half an hour, in which Sullivan lost 211 of his troops, and Pigott 260, the British gave way, and retired to Quaker

Hill. The next day, a letter from Washington informed him, that Sir Henry Clinton, with a large body of troops, had put out to sea from New-York. His prospects were now completely reversed, and instead of hoping to conquer the British forces, his own were in imminent danger. By a skill that has been much commended, he succeeded in drawing off his army to the main land. The very next day, Clinton, who had been detained by adverse winds, arrived at the island, with 4,000 men.

This affair was unhappy in its effects. D'Estaing had left Sullivan to his fate, not only against his entreaties, but against the warm remonstrances of generals Greene and La Fayette. The resentment excited in the breast of Sullivan, and the disapprobation of many others, gave to Washington the greatest uneasiness, and called forth all his address to sooth their ruffled spirits, and prevent an open rupture with the French admiral.

Sir Henry Clinton, disappointed of his expected prize, bent his course towards New-York, intending, in his route, to make a descent upon New London; but, on account of adverse winds, he proceeded immediately to New-York. He left the command of the troops on board the transports, to Gen. Gray, with orders to destroy, if possible, the American privateers, which resorted to Buzzard's bay, and the adjacent rivers. He arrived there with some transports, and succeeded in destroying sixty large vessels, and some small craft. Proceeding to New Bedford and Fair-Haven, he destroyed many mills, warehouses, and much private property.

Sept. 5.
Gen. Gray's
excursion.

In the campaign of this year, the depredations committed by the savages, were more frequent and more inhuman than ever. The ruthless chiefs, who guided them in these sanguinary expeditions, were Butler, a tory refugee, and Brandt, a half-blooded Indian; beings capable of the most horrid deeds. The devastation of the flourishing settlement of Wyoming, by a band of Indians and tories, was marked by the most demoniac cruelties. This settlement consisted of eight towns,

on the banks of the Susquehannah, and was one of the most flourishing and delightful places in America. But even in this peaceful spot, the inhabitants were not exempt from the baneful influence of party spirit. Although the majority were devoted to the cause of their country, yet the loyalists were numerous. Several persons had been arrested as tories, and sent to the proper authorities for trial. This excited the indignation of their party, determining upon revenge, who united with the Indians; and, resorting to artifice, pretended a desire to cultivate peace with the inhabitants of Wyoming, while they were making every preparation for their meditated vengeance. The youth of Wyoming were

July.
Indians destroy
the settlement of
Wyoming.

at this time with the army, and but 500 men, capable of defending the settlement, remained. The inhabitants had constructed four forts for their security, into which these men were distributed. In the month of July, 1,600 Indians and tories, under the command of Butler and Brandt, appeared on the banks of the Susquehannah. Two of the forts nearest the frontier immediately surrendered to them. The savages spared the women and children, but butchered the rest of their prisoners, without exception. They then surrounded Kingston, the principal fort, and to dismay the garrison, hurled into the place 200 scalps, still reeking with blood. Col. Denison, knowing it to be impossible to defend the fort, demanded of Butler what terms would be allowed the garrison, if they surrendered; he answered, "the hatchet." They attempted further resistance, but were soon compelled to surrender. Enclosing the inhabitants, in houses and barracks, they set fire to them, and the men, women, and children were all consumed.

The fort of Wilksbarre still remained in the power of the republicans; but this garrison, learning the fate of the others, surrendered without resistance, hoping in this way to obtain mercy. But submission could not soften the hearts of these unfeeling monsters, and their atrocious cruelties were renewed. They then devastated the country, burnt their dwellings, and consigned their crops to the flames. The tories appeared to surpass even the savages in barbarity. The nearest ties of consanguinity were disregarded; and it is asserted, that a mother was murdered by the hand of her own son. None escaped but a few women and children; and these, dispersed and wandering in the forests, without food and without clothes, were not the least worthy of commiseration.

Sept. Quarrels with the French.	Disputes occurred about this time, between the French and the inhabitants at Boston, and also at Charleston, South Carolina. In both these places some of the French were killed. At Boston, the Chevalier de St. Sauveur lost his life. Congress attributed these unfortunate affairs to British machinations; and the French admiral forebore to inquire further. The Marquis La Fayette, hoping to serve the United States by his representations in France, requested and obtained permission to repass the Atlantic.
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French and English fleets sail for the West Indies.	Admiral D'Estaing left Boston for the West Indies, on the 3d of November. The same day, Commodore Hotham left Sandy Hook, having on board 5,000 land troops, under Maj. Gen. Grant, to sustain the English garrisons in those islands. He was followed, on the 14th of December, by Admiral Byron, who had superseded Admiral Howe, with the whole English fleet. The French took Dominica from the English; and the English, St. Lucia from the French.
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In planning the campaign for this year, the British had placed their principal hope of success in conquering the southern states. It was not, however, until this late period of the campaign, that Sir Henry Clinton was prepared to attempt the execution of their design. He sent

Georgia, under convoy of Admiral Hyde Parker, 2,500 English, Hessians, and refugees. This corps was commanded by Col. Campbell, who was to attack by sea, while Prevost, the commander in Florida, was ordered

Nov. 27.
British forces
sail for Georgia.

to commence attacks along the Savannah river. The 27th of December, Campbell arrived before Savannah, which was unprepared for defence. On the 28th, he defeated the Americans near that place, under Maj. Gen. Robert Howe, and killed upwards of one hundred of his troops. The British took immediate possession of the city. Four hundred and fifty American troops, and a large quantity of artillery and ammunition fell into their hands. That part of the American army which escaped, retreated into South Carolina.

Dec. 29.
Savannah is
taken.

Late in the autumn of 1778, Washington took winter quarters at Middlebrook.

SECTION IX.

CAMPAIGN OF 1779.

THE plan of Sir Henry Clinton was to subjugate, at the outset of this campaign, the whole state of Georgia to the royal authority. The capital being already in possession of the British, they soon overran the adjacent country. Sunbury still held out for congress. Gen. Prevost, (commander of the troops at St. Augustine,) pursuant to the orders of Clinton, left Florida; and, after a march of excessive fatigue and hardship, attacked the garrison at that place. They made a show of resistance; but the country being now in the hands of the enemy, they were compelled to surrender at discretion.

Sunbury taken
by the British.

Col. Campbell had undertaken the same enterprise. Joining his corps to that of Prevost, they proceeded together to Savannah, where Prevost took the command of all the British forces in that region. The whole of Georgia was now under the authority of the royalists; and Clinton had accomplished all that he had expected to effect, before he should be joined by recruits from England. He did not consider him-

self in sufficient force to attack Charleston; but, aware that if he did not proceed with offensive operations, his army would languish, and his enemy soon put him on the defensive, he planned an expedition against Port Royal, giving the command to Gen. Gardner. The Eng-

Unsuccessful at-
tempt upon Port
Royal. —————
lish were, however, so valiantly received by the Carolinians, that they were obliged to return, after having experienced a severe loss.

One of the motives of the British ministry, in transferring the war into the southern states, resulted from an opinion, that a great proportion were, at heart, in favour of the mother country; and that if an opportunity presented, they would flock to its standard. They were not mistaken in the belief, that there were royalists; but they were deceived as to their number, and efficient strength. This was clearly shown by events which occurred about this period.

Of these royalists, there were several kinds. Some of the least violent, concealing their sentiments, resided in the midst of the republicans; some lived solitary, and watched a favourable opportunity to declare themselves; while others were so rancorous as even to unite with the Indians; and, assisting in their nocturnal massacres, their conduct was more barbarous than that of the savages themselves.

To support and encourage these friends to the royal cause, the British generals moved up the river to Augusta. They sent out numerous emissaries, who represented to them that now was the time to join the royal standard. They were told that they wanted nothing but to unite their strength, to become incomparably the stronger party; to be enabled to take vengeance on those who had so long loaded them with indignities; and to entitle them to the high rewards which await those who are found faithful among the faithless. The royalists rose in arms, put themselves under the command of Col. Boyd, one of their chiefs; and, moving towards the British army, pillaged, burnt, and murdered on their way. Meantime, the Carolinians collected a force, which,

Col. Pickens de-
feats a party of
royalists. —————
under the command of Col. Pickens, met them, just as they had nearly reached the British posts. A furious conflict ensued. The republicans killed great numbers, and totally defeated the party. Seventy-six of the most guilty were condemned to death as criminals; but mercy was extended to the whole number of the condemned, except five.

Towards the close of the preceding year, General Lincoln was appointed, at the request of the Carolinians, to take the command of the southern forces. He arrived, on the 4th of December, at Charleston; and, on the 17th of January, took post at Purysburg. As the enemy extended their posts up the Savannah, on the southern side, Lincoln extended his on the northern bank. He fixed one encampment at Black Swamp, and another nearly opposite to Augusta; intending, as

soon as he should be able to collect a sufficient force, to cross the Savannah, and oblige the enemy to evacuate the upper parts of Georgia. Meantime, Prevost fell down the river to Hudson's ferry. Lincoln, whose army amounted to 4,000, intending to restrict him to the coast, now commenced the execution of his design, of taking possession of the upper part of Georgia. He detached Gen. Ashe, with 2,000 men, of the North Carolina militia, to take post on Briar creek. Finding his position a strong one, and trusting too much to its strength, Ashe was not careful to avoid surprise. Prevost took measures, by judicious feints, to keep the attention of Lincoln diverted from Ashe, while he marched to surprise that general. He was so completely successful, that he had entered the camp of the Americans before they were aware of his approach. Panic struck, the militia fled, without firing a shot; but many of them being drowned in the river, and swallowed up in the marshes, met with a death which they might possibly have escaped by a gallant resistance.

March 3.
General Prevost
surprises the
Americans.

The regular troops of Carolina and Georgia, animated by the example of their commander, the brave Gen. Elbert, made a gallant resistance; but, deserted by their friends, and outnumbered by their enemies, they were compelled to yield. By this disastrous affair, General Lincoln must have been deprived of 1,600 of his troops; as only four hundred returned to his camp.

Again the British were masters of all Georgia. They had free communication with the encouraged loyalists; not only in the back parts of this state, but also in those of the Carolinas: and Gen. Prevost now proceeded to organize a colonial government.

Alarmed, but not dismayed, the Carolinians made the most vigorous exertions to draw out their militia. John Rutledge, in whom all classes confided, was chosen governor. By the middle of April Lincoln found himself at the head of 5,000 fighting men. On the 23d, he resumed his intention of occupying Georgia; and, leaving 1,000 of his troops under Gen. Moultrie, to garrison Purysburg and Black Swamp, he marched with the remainder up the Savannah. Meantime, the army of Prevost, which was increased by the royalists, crossed the river Savannah, near its mouth, and defeated Gen. Moultrie; who, finding Purysburg and Black Swamp untenable, had retired towards Charleston. Holding on their victorious course, the 11th of May they appeared before

Moultrie retreats
before Prevost,
who invests
Charleston.

Charleston. The garrison of this city was small, although it had been the day before reinforced by 500 militia, under Gov. Rutledge, and by the "American Legion," under the Count Pulaski. Their only hope of relief was from the hourly expected presence of Lincoln. When, therefore, they were, on the morning of the 12th, summoned to surren-

der, they sent out commissioners to negotiate, who contrived, by requiring certain conditions, to bring on a long dispute. In the meantime, they were making vigorous preparations for real defence, and a great show, as if well prepared for resistance.—The fears of Prevost began to operate, and he drew off his troops some miles from the town. While he hesitated, and delayed to attack the city, the army of Lincoln appeared.

June 20. Prevost now retired to St. James and St. John's, southward of Charleston; his design being to pass along these fertile islands, and others which line the coast. Lincoln followed him upon the main land, and an indecisive engagement of some regiments occurred at Stono Ferry. Gen. Prevost left a garrison in Beaufort, on Port Royal, under command of Colonel Maitland, and then retired with the British main army to Savannah; while Gen. Lincoln, with the American forces, took post at Sheldon.

May. In May, Gen. Clinton, wishing to further the designs of the British ministry, in the conquest of the southern states, sent out from New-York a fleet, under the command of Com. Collier, with a corps of 2,000 men, under Gen. Matthews, to make a descent upon Virginia, and by devastating the country, to keep the inhabitants in a continual state of alarm. He had hopes that, by the aid of the loyalists, this force would be able to overawe and effect a revolt of the state. The fleet proceeded to the Chesapeake, and blocked up the entrances of James river and Hampton Roads. A part of the troops landed on the banks of Elizabeth river: then proceeded to Portsmouth, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Gosport, burned those places, and spread devastation through the country. They demolished magazines, and took great quantities of provisions, which had been prepared for the American army, and burned or removed all the stores and shipping. Failing, however, in the grand object of producing a revolt, Clinton recalled them to New York.

He next resolved to attack the American works at Stony Point, and Verplank's Neck, two opposite projections of land on the Hudson river. The Americans had constructed these works at great labour and expense. They were important to them, as they commanded the pass called King's Ferry, and because, if they fell into the hands of the British, the Americans would be obliged to take a circuit of ninety miles up the river, to communicate, by land, between the eastern and southern provinces.

June 1. Gen. Clinton, commanding this expedition in person, left New-York on the last of May. He first proceeded against Stony Point, and the Americans, being unprepared for defence, evacuated the place. At Verplank's

Point, the fort named La Fayette had just been completed. Unfortunately, however, this fort was commanded by the heights of Stony Point, upon which the British had, during the night, planted a battery of heavy cannon, and another of mortars. Early in the morning, this artillery was turned against fort La Fayette; and the enemy having invested it, all probability of relief was cut off, and the garrison surrendered. Gen. Clinton gave orders for completing the works of Stony Point; and, on the 2d of June, he encamped his army at Philipsburg, half way between Verplank's Point and New-York.

At this period, the commerce of the British on Long Island sound was nearly destroyed by the Connecticut privateers. They intercepted whatever made its appearance on their waters; and by this means distressed the British army in New-York, which had been accustomed to receive its supplies from this quarter. To remedy this inconvenience, Gov. Tryon, by the orders of Clinton, embarked with a strong detachment for Connecticut. He proceeded to New Haven, and destroyed all the shipping which he found in that port. He then advanced to Fairfield, Norwalk, and Greenwich, all of which places he barbarously consigned to the flames. Besides the loss of a great quantity of shipping and whale boats, the destruction of other property was immense.

July.
Gov. Tryon
makes a descent
upon Conn.

While the British were thus desolating the coasts of Connecticut, the Americans undertook the recovery of Verplank's and Stony Points. The stores at Stony Point, in particular, were abundant, and it was garrisoned with a numerous and select corps of troops. Washington charged Gen. Wayne with the attack of Stony Point, and Gen. Howe with that of Verplank's. The troops commanded by Gen. Wayne arrived under the walls of the fort about midnight. The Americans were divided into two columns, and attacked the fort from opposite points. The English opened a tremendous fire upon them; but they rushed impetuously onward, opening their way with the bayonet. They scaled the fort, and the two victorious columns met in the centre of the works. The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to six hundred, the Americans lost but one hundred. The attack upon Verplank's Point proved unsuccessful.

July 15.
Americans take
Stony Point.

When Clinton received intelligence of the capture of Stony Point, he determined not to suffer the Americans to remain in possession, and despatched a corps of troops to dislodge them. Washington, not wishing to hazard a battle, ordered Gen. Wayne to retire, having accomplished his object in dismantling the fort, and removing all the artillery and stores.

This enterprise was speedily followed by another, equally bold in its design. On the 19th, Maj. Lee, with Garrison at Paulus Hook surpri-

sed and cap-
tured.

three hundred men, completely surprised the British gar-
rison at Paulus' Hook, killed thirty of the enemy, and
took 159 prisoners.

July.

Unsuccessful
expedition of
the Bostonians
against the Bri-
tish at Penob-
scot.

At the east, the British obtained some advantages over the Americans. Col. M'Lean had embarked from Halifax, with a strong detachment of troops, and landed at the mouth of the Penobscot river. In this place he chose an advantageous situation, and proceeded to fortify himself. His object was to annoy the eastern frontier, and to prevent the inhabitants of Massachusetts from sending reinforcements to the army of Washington. The Bostonians, in great alarm, fitted out, under the command of Commodore Saltonstall, an armament with which they despatched a portion of land troops, under the command of Gen. Lovell. On their arrival at Penobscot, instead of attacking the enemy immediately, which would have insured them success, they delayed fifteen days, in order to entrench themselves. On the day of the intended attack, Commodore Collier, whom Clinton, on hearing of the situation of M'Lean, had sent from Sandy Hook to his relief, appeared with his fleet, at the mouth of the Penobscot. The Americans re-embarked, but Collier attacked the flotilla, and entirely destroyed it. The soldiers and sailors, in order to effect their escape, were obliged to land, and hide themselves in the forests; through which they escaped to their homes. The failure of this enterprise was a severe mortification, as well as a serious loss to the Bostonians.

In July, congress sent Gen. Sullivan, with 3,000 troops, to repress the incursions of the savages at the west. He proceeded up the Susquehannah; and at Wyoming was joined by a reinforcement of 1,600 men, under the command of James Clinton.

Aug. 29.

Sullivan defeats
the Tories and
savages.

The Indians had assembled in great numbers, under the command of their ferocious leaders, Johnson, Butler, and Brandt, and were now joined by 250 royalists. Confident in their strength, they had advanced to Newtown; and while awaiting Sullivan's approach, had thrown up an extensive entrenchment, strengthened by a palisade and redoubts, after the European manner. Gen. Sullivan, on his arrival, immediately attacked the place; and the Indians, after defending it two hours, fled in disorder, few being killed, and none taken prisoners. Sullivan took possession of Newtown, from whence he made incursions into the other parts of their country; and the terrified savages made no further resistance; but escaped to the forests. An immense quantity of grain was burned, forty Indian villages were utterly destroyed; and no trace of vegetation left upon the surface of the ground. Gen. Sullivan, after having accomplished this enterprise, went with his army to Easton, in Pennsylvania.

SECTION X.

CAMPAIGN OF 1779.

Continued.]

To understand the history of the war, it is necessary to keep in view, not only the movements of the forces of America, but also those of its ally and its enemy. The commencement of the present year finds the Count D'Estaing and Lord Byron, with their respective fleets, in the West Indies. The former is reinforced by a squadron, under the Count De Grasse, and the latter by an armament under Commodore Rowley.

1779.
War of the
French and Eng-
lish in the West
Indies.

Their fleets were now nearly equal, and the English were desirous of a naval battle; but the French had in view the conquest of the neighbouring English islands; and for that purpose, had on board a considerable land force, which must, in the event of a battle, be exposed, and could afford no assistance. D'Estaing was therefore averse to an engagement, and lay quietly at anchor, in port, at Martinique.

Meantime, Lord Byron sailed towards England, to convoy a fleet of merchantmen, well aware that a guard of no ordinary strength could, under present circumstances, protect them. No sooner had he left the West Indies, than the French admiral sent a detached squadron to St. Vincent, which succeeded in capturing that valuable island.

On the 30th of June, D'Estaing, who had received a reinforcement from France, left Martinico, his fleet consisting of twenty-five sail of the line, and, on the 2d of July, came to anchor in a harbour of Grenada. On this island he landed 2,500 men, and attacked and carried, by a bloody and destructive assault, St. George, its principal fortress; and the island, of necessity, submitted to France.

Shortly after these events, D'Estaing received letters from Gen. Lincoln, Pr sident Lowndes, of South Carolina, and Mr. Plombard, consul of France, from which he learned the dissatisfaction which existed in America. The republicans complained, that the alliance with France had produced nothing upon the American continent, which corresponded either to the greatness of their ally, or the general expectations of the Americans. It was said, that the sums expended upon Rhode Island were worse than fruitless, and that the zeal with which the Bostonians had victualled and equipped the French fleet, produced no better effect than its immediate desertion of their coasts, on distant expeditions. The loss of Savannah and Georgia, which opened to the British an easy entrance to the Carolinas, was attributed to the deser

tion of the French ; and finally, it was said, that while the French were enriching themselves in distant seas, with the conquests of the British possessions, they left the Americans, contrary to the stipulations of the treaty, to sustain the burden of the war. These complaints were followed by earnest entreaties, that D'Estaing would immediately restore the confidence of the Americans, by hastening to their succour.

Sept. 1.
D'Estaing arrives off the coast of Georgia.

Count D'Estaing had received instructions to return immediately to Europe, but moved by the representations of the Americans, he ventured to disobey the summons of his court ; and, directing his course for Georgia, he appeared off the coast on the 1st of September.

He believed that there were two plans, which, if America could successfully execute, the war must, of necessity, come to a conclusion. One of these, was the destruction of the forces under Gen. Prevost, at Savannah ; and the other, and more difficult, was to attack by sea and land, conjointly with Washington, the British forces in the city of New-York. It was determined to attempt the former ; and the Count D'Estaing and General Lincoln lost no time in commencing their joint operations.

The French admiral had sent some ships to Charleston with the joyful news of his arrival in those waters. They surprised and captured some British vessels loaded with provisions. Gen. Prevost, alarmed at his danger, sent expresses, directing the forces under Maitland, and those at Sunbury, to repair with speed to Savannah. He removed the shipping farther up the river, destroyed the batteries at the island of Tybee, and pressed the completion of the fortifications at Savannah.

Meantime, Gen. Lincoln marched towards Savannah, leaving orders for the militia to collect from all quarters, and join his army. Before

Sept. 24.
Savannah invested by the French, who are joined by the Americans.

he had arrived, D'Estaing had invested the place, and demanded of Prevost to surrender to the arms of France ; a measure which was displeasing to the republicans. The expected reinforcements of Prevost had not yet arrived ; and he amused the French admiral by a protracted negotiation. D'Estaing even went so far as to give him a truce of twenty-four hours. In the meantime, Maitland arrived, with eight hundred men ; and there was then no further talk of surrendering. Pulaski, with his legion, and Lincoln, with 3,000 troops, had also arrived before Savannah. Works were erected, and a regular siege was commenced on the 24th of September.

On the 3d of October the trenches were completed, the batteries armed, and a bombardment commenced. Fifty-three pieces of cannon, and nine mortars, sent an incessant shower of balls and shells. The city was on fire in many places. The burning roofs fell upon the women, the children and the unarmed multitude ; and every where were seen

the crippled, the dying, and the dead. Five days this firing continued, and, although so dreadful to the town, it was nearly harmless to the fort. Touched with the sufferings which he witnessed, Prevost requested permission that the women and children should be sent down the river, on board of vessels intrusted to the care of the French, to await there the issue of the siege. D'Estaing, fearing to be again entrapped, refused this humane request. In the meantime, the French fleet would be exposed to dangers, and himself to disgrace, should the admiral longer detain it. And although the allies knew that they were putting to great hazard that which delay would make certain, yet the exigency of the case seemed to demand it; and it was resolved to assault the town. The flower of the combined armies were led to the attack by the two commanders, D'Estaing and Lincoln. They met with many disasters, and a final repulse. The number

Oct. 9.

The allies are repulsed.

of the slain and the wounded shows that the battle must have been bloody. The French loss was 700; the American, four hundred. The Count D'Estaing was wounded, but recovered; the Count Pulaski, while bravely charging at the head of 200 horse, received a wound which caused his death, and deprived America of one of her most valiant and disinterested defenders. On the 18th, the allies raised the siege of Savannah. Lincoln crossed the river with his regular troops; the militia disbanded, and returned to their homes; and D'Estaing set sail for Europe.

Oct. 18.

They raise the siege.

Sir Henry Clinton, fearing an attack from the French, withdrew his troops from Rhode Island precipitately, with the loss of his munitions; leaving that state to revert peaceably to the union.

Oct. 25.

The British withdraw from Rhode Island.

Near the close of this year occurred, on the coast of Scotland, that unexampled sea fight, which gave to the name of Paul Jones such terrific eclat. This man was a native of Scotland, but engaged in the service of the United States. His flotilla was composed of the Bonhomme Richard, of forty guns; the Alliance, of thirty-six, (both American ships,) the Pallas, a French frigate of thirty-two, in the pay of congress, and two other smaller vessels. He fell in with a British merchant fleet, on its return from the Baltic, convoyed by Capt. Pearson, with the frigate Serapis, of forty-four guns, and the Countess of Scarborough, of twenty.

Pearson had no sooner perceived Jones, than he bore down to engage him, while the merchantmen endeavoured to gain the coast. The American flotilla formed to receive him. The two enemies joined battle about seven

Sept. 23.

Paul Jones' naval battle.

in the evening. The British having the advantage of cannon of a longer reach, Paul Jones resolved to fight them closer. He brought

up his ships, until the muzzles of his guns came in contact with those of his enemy. Here the phrensied combatants fought from seven till ten. Paul Jones now found that his vessel was so shattered, that only three effective guns remained. Trusting no longer to these, he assailed his enemy with grenades; which, falling into the *Serapis*, set her on fire in several places. At length her magazine blew up, and killed all near it. Pearson, enraged at his officers, who wished him to surrender, commanded them to board. Paul Jones, at the head of his crew, received them at the point of the pike; and they retreated. But the flames of the *Serapis* had communicated to her enemy, and the vessel of Jones was on fire. Amidst this tremendous night scene, the American frigate *Alliance* came up, and mistaking her partner for her enemy, fired a broad-side into the vessel of Jones, but by the glare of the burning ships she discovered her mistake, and turned her guns against her exhausted foe. Pearson's crew were killed or wounded, his artillery dismounted, and his vessel on fire; and he could no longer resist. The flames of the *Serapis* were, however, arrested; but the leaks of the *Good-man Richard* could not be stopped, and the nulk went down soon after the mangled remains of the crew had been removed. Of the 375, who were on board that renowned vessel, 300 were killed or wounded. The *Pallas* had captured the *Countess of Scarborough*; and Jones, after this horrible victory, wandered, with his shattered, unmanageable vessels for some time; and at length, on the 6th of October, had the good fortune to find his way to the waters of the *Texel*.

Having now brought to a close the military affairs of the campaign, we pause to take some note of the political transactions.

Political events
of 1779.

Notwithstanding the apparent inutility to the republicans, of the French fleet, it was in reality of great importance to their cause, as it kept the British constantly in check. But the alliance with France had also its disadvantages. The public feeling, so long strained to an unnatural elevation, was now pre-disposed to sink to apathy; and the Americans were led to believe that England must, from the power of France, soon be compelled to yield, although they should remit their efforts.

The leading republicans saw the evil with alarm. Endeavouring to counteract it, they called on the people, by the memory of their past exploits, by the necessity of preserving the respect of their allies, by the perils which still impended, and by the power and treacherous policy of their yet unconquered adversary, to arouse from their lethargy, and trust not in chance or in strangers, but in their own exertions, for the establishment of their rights; but vain was the appeal; and even the army was affected by the lethargic torpor of the public mind.

Another evil had arisen. The disorders of the times had produced

a race of men, who, seeking solely to enrich themselves, made a trade of the public distress. What did they care if their country should fall, if they could share her spoils? Freedom for them might perish, so they could but batten on her corse. Army supplies enriched them, as they afforded them pretences for peculations; and the state often paid dearly for what it never received. Such wretches are ever the loudest to chime in with the tune of the times. Hypocrites in patriotism; vociferous in talking of their country's rights, they deceived the undecerning, and acquired an influence, by which they sought to remove from office all who obstructed their designs; and by their intrigues, the appalling cry of tory was raised, and sometimes not in vain, against the upright officer who refused to connive at their selfish rapacity.

One cause of this alarming degeneracy in morals, lay in the depreciation of paper currency. At the close of this year, a dollar in specie could scarcely be obtained for forty in bills. But, the paper was fluctuating in its value. Hence a set of men arose, who preferred speculating on this currency, to honest industry; and often in the changes which occurred, the worthless amassed sudden wealth, while many deserving persons of moderate fortunes, sunk at once to poverty. That the bills should have depreciated, will not be mysterious, when we consider that the immense sum of one hundred and sixty millions had now been issued by congress.

The honest individual of private life, will be surprised to learn another reason of the depreciation of American paper, although the wily politician knows that it is no new "trick of state." England, on this occasion, turned counterfeiter. Her ministers sent over, and her generals distributed whole chests of spurious bills, so perfectly imitated, as scarcely to be distinguished from the true.

In the meantime, America was scarcely less in danger from her friends than her enemies. Her congress was beset by the intrigues of France and Spain. The former had not intended to declare in her favour, until far greater concessions had been obtained. She had been surprised into the step she had taken, by the unexpected fortune which, in the case of Burgoyne, the Americans had single-handed won for themselves, and which made her fear, that, unless she then declared herself, the contest would be decided, and America become independent, without being in any degree indebted to her, or inclined to favour her. She also feared that she should lose the opportunity of obtaining a powerful and efficient ally in a war which she wished, on her own account, to wage against her too powerful neighbour, and hereditary enemy. Now that by the alliance, these objects were secured, she wished, in the particulars which yet remained to be settled, to drive a hard bargain for her services; and to make the Americans think meanly of themselves, would be to enhance the

Intrigues of
France & Spain.

value of those services. M. Gerard, in his communications to congress, endeavoured, by such means, to make them consent to abandon to France the extensive fisheries of Newfoundland; and to Spain, the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi. The alliance of Spain was also to be thrown into the scale; and the advantages of this were magnified. But congress were not deceived; they refused the specious bait; and Spain, having precisely the same policy as France, and the same desire to humble England, declared war against that power, to suit her own purposes; without succeeding in making America believe, that she did it for her sake.

The British ministry had, in the spring, sent out Admiral Arbuthnot with a reinforcement for the American service. He was, however, delayed by the way, and did not arrive until August. Under convoy of his fleet, Sir Henry Clinton, with 7,000 men, sailed in December from New-York, for the south, and after a tempestuous and protracted voyage, landed at Tybee Island, in the neighbourhood of Savannah, the last of January. Gen. Lincoln, with his army, was, at the close of this year, in winter quarters, at Shelden; and Washington, dividing his army into two parts, sent one division to take post at West Point, and himself, with the other, occupied the heights of Morristown.

SECTION XI.

CAMPAIGN OF 1780.

FRESH indications of hostility towards England were manifested by the European powers. She had for a considerable period been mistress of the sea, and she had borne her honours haughtily. She claimed the right of searching the vessels of neutral nations, for articles contraband of war; nor would she allow their national flag to protect them from her troublesome and insulting scrutiny. A common feeling of indignation, at this conduct, pervaded the nations; which, by the policy of Catharine II. of Russia, England was made to feel, without the power of resenting. On the occasion of the irritation produced by the search and seizure of a number of Dutch vessels, sailing under the convoy of the Count de Byland, that princess proposed to the nations to unite in an "*armed neutrality*;" and immediately the kings of Denmark and Sweden acceded to the proposal. The treaty

The armed neutrality.

to which they were mutually bound, and which constituted the basis of this confederacy, stipulated, that neutral vessels might freely navigate from one port to another, even upon the coast of belligerent powers ;—that all effects become free so soon as they are on board a neutral vessel, except such articles, as by a former specified treaty, had been declared contraband ;—that no port should be deemed blockaded, until such an actual naval force had invested it, as to make its entrance dangerous ;—that when any vessel had shown by its papers, that it was not the carrier of contraband goods, it might place itself under the escort of ships of war, which should prevent its being stopped ;—and finally, that the legality of prizes should be determined by these rules. In order to command respect for this confederation, the three allied powers agreed that each should keep a part of its navy equipped, and make common cause in protecting their common trade. These articles were communicated to the courts of France, Spain, Holland, England, and Portugal, with an invitation to join the confederacy. The two former expressed great admiration of their wisdom, and joy in their adoption ; and not only acceded to them, but wished the northern powers to understand, that by their directions to their admirals, they had already anticipated them. Portugal, fearful of offending England, declined the alliance. England threatened with vengeance the states of Holland, if they departed from the old system of neutrality ; but Holland, irritated at the seizure of her vessels, and partaking in the common feeling of resentment towards England, disregarded these threats, and joined the armed neutrality. The British ministry, unwilling to come to an open rupture with Russia, but determined not to admit the principles of the confederacy, dissembled, for the present, their displeasure, and replied to the invitation in a vague and indecisive manner.

Surrounded by so many perils, it is not strange that England prosecuted the American war with less energy, than she had done in preceding years. Yet she manifested no signs of fear or discouragement. The only change which took place in her policy respecting the American contest, was that before stated ; to draw all her troops to the south, except so many as should enable her to keep possession of the posts already acquired at the north.

Sir Henry Clinton, as we have before noticed, had arrived in the vicinity of Savannah, with 7,000 men. On the 10th of February, he set sail for Charleston, and landing within thirty miles of the city, took possession of John's Island and Stono Ferry, and afterwards of Wappoo Cut and James Island, while a part of his army took post on the banks of Ashley river, opposite Charleston. Having sent to New-York and Savannah for men and stores, his army was soon increased by 1,200 troops from Savannah, under Gen. Patterson. Not doubting but that Charleston would be attacked, General Lincoln removed thither with

his army ; and in conjunction with Governor Rutledge, to whom the state had confided dictatorial powers, tried every measure to put the city in a posture of defence. But they had great difficulties to encounter. The militia had been disbanded ; they were dispirited, and afraid to enter Charleston on account of the small pox, which was there prevailing. Paper currency was out of credit, and many becoming discouraged, as to the final success of the republican cause, took advantage of the amnesty which had been offered by Prevost. A considerable force was however collected, and great diligence was displayed in constructing fortifications.

April 1. The siege commenced on the 1st of April, and the enemy were employed at succeeding periods, in erecting batteries across Charleston Neck, while the garrison were equally assiduous in preparing for defence. Gen. Lincoln had posted Gen. Huger, with a detachment at Monk's Corner ; which was driven from this position, on the 14th of April, by the British troops, under colonels Webster, Ferguson, and Tarleton ; and thus the only road by which a retreat could be effected, was at the command of the besiegers. Their force also was, about this time, increased by the arrival of 3,000 troops from New-York. The British fleet had, on the 9th of April, passed fort Moultrie, without making an attack, losing by its guns, only twenty-seven men, and then anchored near fort Johnson. Clinton, the same day, completed the first parallel across Charleston Neck, about 1,100 yards from the American works ; and after vainly summoning the garrison to surrender, he opened his batteries upon the town. Col. Pinckney, who commanded fort Moultrie, having withdrawn his troops to Charleston, that fort was surrendered on the 7th of May.

May 12. Gen. Lincoln being thus completely surrounded, capitulated on the 12th, surrendering his whole army, which consisted of seven general officers, ten continental regiments, and three battalions. Four hundred pieces of artillery, and four frigates fell into the hands of the enemy.

The successful operations of the British in the siege of Charleston, and in the defence made at the close of the last year, at Savannah, are by historians attributed, in a great degree, to the superior skill of their chief engineer, Moncrieff.

After taking possession of the capital, Clinton planned three expeditions, all of which proved successful ; one against Ninety-Six, one towards the Savannah river, and the third to scour the country between the Cooper and Santee rivers. The object of the last was to disperse a body of republicans, under Col. Burford, who were retiring, by forced marches, in hopes to meet another body of Americans, who were on the march from Salisbury to Charlotte. Burford continued his retreat with such celerity, that it appeared next to impossible to overtake him.

But Col. Tarleton, the most active of Clinton's officers, commanded the pursuit, and after marching 105 miles in 54 hours, on the 28th of May, he came up with Burford, at Wacsaw. The English victory was complete, but it

May 28.
Tarleton surprises Burford at Wacsaw.

was stained with cruelty. They massacred many of those who offered to surrender, and from this time the proverbial mode of expressing the barbarous act of killing those who surrender, was, "Tarleton's quarter." Thus the cavalry, which Clinton had brought with him, had proved of essential service to his arms; and the alert, yet sanguinary Tarleton, at that period, seemed, to the terrified inhabitants, to be every where present.

There no longer remained, in South Carolina, a force capable of withstanding the British. The inhabitants flocked from all parts to meet the royal troops, and declare their desire of resuming their ancient allegiance. Clinton wrote to England, that "South Carolina was English again." But he was aware that his conquests could not be preserved, but by re-establishing the civil administration.

He published a full pardon to all who should immediately return to their duty. But they must consider themselves established in the duties, as well as the rights of British

Clinton proceeds to establish the royal government in S. C.

subjects; that is, they were required to take up arms in support of the royal government; those who had families, to form a militia for home defence; but those who had not, to serve with the royal forces, for any six months of the ensuing twelve. Thus citizens became armed against citizens; and brothers against brothers.

Gen. Clinton, seeing the affairs of the south in apparent tranquillity, distributed his army, amounting to about 4,000 troops, into the most important garrisons; and, leaving Lord Cornwallis in the command of the southern

June.
Clinton returns to New-York.

forces, returned to New-York. That city had been exposed to danger. The garrison was weak; and such had been the unparalleled severity of the winter, that Washington might have marched his army, with all his artillery and baggage, across any of its surrounding, and now solid waters. But the miserable condition of the American army, would not allow the commander to take advantage of this unexpected circumstance.

Previous to the return of Clinton, Gen. Knyphausen, who had been left in command, had, with 5,000 men, made an excursion into New Jersey, and for a time occupied Elizabethtown. He had manœuvred to draw Washington from the heights of Morristown, intending to occupy that strong post himself, and thus force the American army into the open country; but his plan was penetrated, and his expedition proved fruitless. Before his return, an affair occurred near Springfield, in which Gen. Greene, who was sent by Washington, to watch the motions of Kny-

June 23.
Skirmish at Springfield, New Jersey.

phased, lost about eighty men, and the British, as was supposed, somewhat more. Springfield, which consisted of fifty houses, was set on fire. At sight of the flames, the inhabitants aroused. The spirit of the early days of the revolution rekindled. They collected in such numbers, and pursued the British with such violence, that their general was glad to take advantage of the night, to withdraw his army from the open country of Jersey to the defences of New-York.

SECTION XII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1780.

[Continued.]

1780.

Congress obliged
to sanction the
depreciation of
paper currency.

Up to this period, congress had maintained their bills at their nominal value, and had often declared, that a dollar in paper should always be given and received for a dollar in silver. But compelled to yield to the pressure of circumstances, they now decided, that, in future, the bills should pass, not at their nominal, but at their conventional value.

The government, which Sir Henry Clinton established in South Carolina, had first made such a decree; and had caused a table to be constructed, showing what had been the rate of depreciation, and the actual value of the bills, in years, and even in months past. The object of this calculation was to obtain a rule, by which the payment of debts might be regulated. This example congress found it expedient to follow.

In Carolina and Georgia, the British saw, with chagrin, that there were still those who were devoted to the cause of independence; and their resentment dictated measures of extraordinary rigour. Their possessions were sequestered, their families jealously watched, and subjected, as rebels, to continual vexations. Within the city, they were refused access to the tribunals, if they had suits to bring against a debtor; while, on the other hand, they were abandoned to all the prosecutions which those who had, or pretended to have claims against them, chose to institute.

Oppressive mea-
sures of the Bri-
tish in S. C.

But there was still another more grievous injury, and one which stung the Carolinians to madness. This was the proclamation by which the British commanders had

absolved the prisoners of war from their parole, and restored them to the condition of British subjects, in order to compel them to fight under the royal banner. Had they been suffered to remain at home, they would, by degrees, have become reconciled to what they could not but feel to be the degradation of their country. But with the requirement to take up arms, their wrath rekindled. "If we must fight," said they, "it shall be for America and our friends, not for England and strangers."

The heroism of the women of Carolina gives them a rank with the noblest patriots of the revolution. They gloried in being called "rebel ladies." They refused their presence at every scene of gayety. Like the daughters of captive Zion, they would not, in their captivity, amuse their conquerors. But, at every hazard, they honoured, with their attention, the brave defenders of their country. They sought out and relieved the suffering soldiers, visited prison ships, and descended into loathsome dungeons. Sisters encouraged their brothers to fight the oppressor; the mother gave his arms to her son, and the wife to her husband; and their parting advice was, "prefer prisons to infamy, and death to servitude."

Heroism of the
women of South
Carolina.

Where important national affairs are concerned, there is a certain degree of warmth and animation, which, pervading the public mind, marks the healthy state of a nation. When this has risen to an unnatural heat, a period of lassitude and inertness succeeds, before the national pulse again recovers its healthful beat. Such a preternatural state of public feeling was excited in America, by the wrongs of Britain, and produced the noble efforts of the days of '76. But it was not in human nature to keep long strained to such a high pitch of elevation. The period of lassitude succeeded, and in '79, the nation seemed asleep. But its sleep recruited its vital energies. The enemy, contemning its apparent weakness, had applied the scourge of a barbarian warfare. Its effects, though cruel to individuals, were wholesome to the body politic: and America aroused from its slumbers, and awoke to better deeds. The leading patriots saw with delight, the rising enthusiasm of the people, and neglected no means which could cherish and propagate it. Congress sent circular letters to all the states, earnestly exhorting them to complete their regiments, and raise and send recruits to the army. The militia obeyed the call with alacrity. The capitalists subscribed large sums, to replenish the exhausted treasury. A bank was instituted at Philadelphia, on which congress could draw for the necessities of the army. With generous patriotism, commercial houses and wealthy individuals stepped forward to support the public

Exertions to
raise money for
the support of
the army.

credit, by their personal responsibility, although the situation of affairs still offered too many motives of doubt and distrust.

Nor was this patriotic zeal to strengthen the sinews of war by filling the public chest, and providing for the wants of the soldiers, confined to the men. The women in all parts of the country, displayed great zeal and activity, particularly in providing clothing for the soldiers.

Society of ladies; and character of Mrs. Washington.

In Philadelphia, they formed a society, at the head of which was Martha Washington, wife of the commander-in-chief. This lady was as prudent in private, as her husband was in public affairs. In his absence, she presided over the domestic finances, and provided for the common household. Partaking of the complacent dignity and calm temperament of her husband, she had no caprices to disturb his affections, in that citadel of man's happiness, the conjugal relation. Thus it was owing to the talents and virtues of his wife, that Washington could give himself wholly to the dictates of that patriotism, which this virtuous pair mutually shared, and reciprocally invigorated.

Mrs. Washington, with the ladies who had formed the society, themselves subscribed considerable sums for the public; and having exhausted their own means, they exerted their influence, and went from house to house, to stimulate the liberality of others.

SECTION XIII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1780.

[Continued.]

1780.

La Fayette returns to America.

At this period, La Fayette returned with the cheering intelligence, that a body of French troops had, at the time of his departure, embarked for America, and that the ships in which they had taken passage, were on the point of setting sail from France. His exertions in that country had accelerated their departure, and he had again come, self-devoted to the generous cause of freedom. He was received by all classes, with the ardent affection, which his bland manners and interesting person excited, and which his services and talents commanded.

July 10.

A French squadron arrives with troops.

The expected succours soon arrived at Rhode Island. They consisted of a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and two corvettes, commanded by M. de Ternay. This fleet convoyed a number of transports,

bearing 6,000 soldiers, under the command of the Count de Rochambeau. An agreement had been made between congress and the court of Versailles, that Gen. Washington should be the commander-in-chief of all the forces, both French and American. The French were welcomed with every demonstration of gratitude, and put in immediate possession of the forts on Rhode Island. Washington, in order to cement more firmly the union between the two nations, ordered the distinctive colours of the national flags, to be blended in the banners of his army.

At New York, Admiral Arbuthnot, whose force had consisted of four ships of the line, was now reinforced by the arrival of six ships, under Admiral Greaves. General Clinton determined on attacking the French at Rhode Island. He accordingly embarked on board the squadron of Admiral Greaves, with 6,000 choice troops, and sailed for Rhode Island. Washington, in the mean-while, having watched the movements of Clinton, immediately marched his army to Kingsbridge, with the intention of attacking New-York, which was now left almost defenceless. But Clinton learning this movement, and finding also that the French were reinforced at Rhode Island, by the New England militia, relinquished the expedition, and returned to the defence of New-York. The indecision and timidity manifested by the British, on this occasion infused new courage into the Americans.

While these events were transpiring at the north, the inhabitants of the south were not inactive. The insolence of the British troops had become insupportable; and the inhabitants of North and South Carolina had assembled in numbers, and seized every opportunity of harassing them. Among the officers, who headed these desultory parties, none rendered such distinguished service to their country, as colonels Sumpter and Marion. Sumpter was a native of South Carolina, and possessed an extensive influence with his fellow citizens. He collected great numbers of the inhabitants, and although they were compelled to trust to chance for their means of subsistence, and to use their implements of husbandry for weapons of war, yet they menaced the enemy in all directions. The resources of these patriots were few. In some instances they were known to encounter the enemy with but three charges of ammunition to a man. Their frequent skirmishes with the British, however, soon furnished them with muskets and cartridges; and when thus equipped, Col. Sumpter, whose numbers now amounted to six hundred men, determined upon attacking some of their strong posts. His first attempt was upon Rocky Mount, where he was repulsed; he then attacked the post at Hanging Rock, and destroyed a British regiment, stationed at that place. Perfectly acquainted with every part of the country, he was enabled to elude all pursuit. This partisan warfare, while it weakened the

Partisan warfare.

Aug. 6.

Sumpter defeats the British at Hanging Rock.

number of the English, emboldened the Americans, and strengthened their confidence in themselves.

Baron de Kalb enters North Carolina with a considerable force, and is joined by General Gates.

In the meantime a few regular troops, under the command of the Baron de Kalb, had been sent from Maryland to the defence of Carolina. Owing to the excessive heat of the season, and the difficulty of procuring provisions, they necessarily proceeded by slow marches.

On their way, however, they were reinforced by the Virginia militia, and the troops of North Carolina, commanded by General Caswell. At Deep river they were joined, on the 25th of July, by Gen. Gates, who had been appointed to the command of the southern army. He immediately advanced towards South Carolina with a force amounting to about 4,000 men. When he arrived on the frontiers of the state, he issued a proclamation, inviting the inhabitants to join him, and promised pardon to all, from whom oaths had been extorted by the English, excepting those who had committed depredations against the persons and property of their fellow citizens. His proclamation had the desired effect. Multitudes flocked to him, and even whole companies, which had been levied in the provinces for the service of the king, deserted.

Lord Rawdon, who had the command of the British forces on the frontiers of Carolina, had concentrated them at Camden. On learning the approach of Gates, he gave immediate notice to Cornwallis, who soon after joined him. At ten, on the night of the 15th of August, his

lordship marched from Camden with his whole force, amounting to 2,000 men, with the intention of attacking the Americans in their camp at Clermont. Gates had also commenced his march from Clermont, with the view of surprising the British camp.

About two in the morning, the advanced guards of the two armies met and fired upon each other. From prisoners made on both sides, the commanders learned each other's movements. The two generals suspended their fire, waiting for the light of day, and the armies having halted, were formed in the order of battle. The ground on which they had met was exceedingly unfavourable to Gates; he could not advance to the attack but through a narrow way, bordered by a deep swamp, and the situation rendered the superiority of the American numbers of no effect. In the morning a severe and general action was fought. The Virginia and North Carolina militia fled in the commencement of the battle, and General Gates in vain attempted to rally them. The continentals were thus left to maintain the contest, and though they defended themselves with great bravery, and several times gained ground, yet they were unable to restore the fortune of the day. The rout became general, the Americans fled in the greatest disorder. They were pursued by the

Aug. 16.

Battle near Camden, and defeat of the Americans.

British twenty-three miles. The whole loss of the Americans in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about two thousand. General Gregory was killed; the Baron de Kalb, who was wounded, and Gen. Rutherford, were taken prisoners. All the artillery, baggage, and stores, fell into the hands of the enemy. The loss of the British amounted to only three hundred and twenty-four.

Baron de Kalb died of his wounds three days after the battle. Gen. Gates retreated to North Carolina, leaving the British triumphant in the south.

Death of De
Kalb.

Col. Sumpter continued to show himself on the banks of the Wateree; but on learning the defeat of Gates, he retired with 300 men, and two field pieces, to North Carolina. Tarleton, with his legion, was sent in pursuit of him, and surprised him on the banks of Fishing creek. Sumpter, with a few of his men, escaped; but most of them were taken by Tarleton, and put to the sword.

Aug. 18.
Tarleton surprises and defeats
Sumpter.

Col. Marion, who about this time was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general, still kept the field. Sheltering himself in the fastnesses of the mountains, he occasionally sallied out upon the British and Tories, and seldom failed of surprising and capturing such small parties, as with his small force it was prudent for him to attack.

SECTION XIV.

CAMPAIGN OF 1780.

[Continued.]

WHILE these affairs were transacting at the south, an unexpected event occurred at the north, which arrested the general attention. A design which had for some time been maturing in darkness was now brought to light. Arnold, the loudest to proclaim his patriotism, the fiercest to fight for his country, had bargained to sell that country for gold! and he had nearly accomplished his wicked purpose.

Arnold's trea-
son.

Arnold was dear to the American people; he had been valiant in their service, and his maimed person bore the marks of the field of Saratoga. On account of his wounds he was obliged to retire from active service. He solicited and obtained from congress, the post of commandant of Philadelphia.

Here Arnold lived in princely magnificence. He inhabited the house

of Gov. Penn, gave it a splendid furnishing, and it became a scene of high play, sumptuous banquets, and expensive balls. To support this pageantry, Arnold resorted to commerce and privateering. In these he was unfortunate, and his next resource was the public treasure, to which, as an officer of the government, he had means of access. He presented accounts unworthy of a general. Congress was indignant, and caused them to be investigated. The commissioners which they appointed, reduced them to one half. Arnold stormed, and appealed to congress. A committee of its members re-investigated, and found his accounts worse than even the report of the commissioners had stated them. Arnold now wreaked his vengeance, by the most shameless invectives against congress. The state of Pennsylvania took up the quarrel, accused him of peculation, and brought him before a court martial. By this court he was sentenced to be reprimanded by Washington.

From what other quarter could he obtain the money to support his extravagance, since the last resource had failed? The coffers of England, he knew, might be opened to supply him. Treason bore with her a high price. He should also obtain revenge on the objects of his wrath: and for these motives he resolved to sell himself and his country. He developed his intention in a letter which he addressed to Col. Robinson, by whom it was communicated to Sir Henry Clinton. Determined to make the most of his new ally, Clinton revolved in his mind what was the most important service which could be rendered him, while Arnold's treachery remained concealed. The foe within the fortress, is employed by its enemy to open the gate. This was the nature of the service which Arnold was to perform for the enemies of his country; and, instigated by Clinton, he sought and obtained of the unsuspecting Washington, the command of the fortress at West Point. As Arnold passed up the river to assume his command, how must those guardian mountains, whose rugged passes had so often sheltered the little army of his country, have seemed to frown upon the traitor, who was about to deliver it up to the enemy! His first measure was to scatter his forces at different points, so that they might be easily cut off by the British; all was ready, and a few days would have consummated his treason; but a providential disclosure saved America.

Major Andre, the aid-de-camp of Gen. Clinton, had been by him entrusted with the negotiation. This young officer is represented, by those who knew him, as being, both in person and mind, one of the most perfect specimens of human nature, and as concentrating all the qualities which the writer of romance is fond of attributing to the hero of the tale. He was manly, yet gracefully elegant; bold, yet tender, and firm, yet ingenuous. Sir Henry Clinton loved him as a son; and such was his confidence in his talents, that he intrusted to him this

most important, difficult, and hazardous service. Probably, however, the partiality of Clinton threw a false light around its object; for Andre was not the proper man for such an enterprise. Had he been more crafty and subtle, he might have conducted the plot to its consummation.

Arnold and Andre had corresponded under the feigned names of Gustavus and Anderson. As the crisis approached, they conceived that a personal interview was necessary, in order to concert their last measures. On the night of the 21st of September, Andre landed from the British sloop of war *Vulture*, which Clinton had stationed near West Point, to facilitate the negotiation. Arnold and Andre spent the whole night in conference; and when the day dawned, their dispositions were not all concluded.

Andre was concealed through the day, and at night he prepared to return. By the entreaties of Arnold, he was prevailed upon to change his uniform for a common dress, instead of concealing it as he had formerly done by a cloak. He took a horse from Arnold, and a passport, under the name of John Anderson. He had safely passed the American guard, and had reached Tarrytown, near the British posts, when three soldiers of the militia crossed his way, and he passed on. One of them thought the traveller had something peculiar in his appearance, and called him back. Andre inquired, "where are you from?" "From below," (intending to be understood from New-York,) replied the soldier. "So am I," said the self-betrayed Andre. The soldiers arrested him, and he did not attempt to conceal that he was a British officer. He offered them every bribe Andre is taken. which he thought could tempt men like them. He pleaded with all the energy inspired by the love of life, and by the momentous concerns that his preservation then involved, to his country, and his beloved general. But the humble patriots spurned the bribe, and were deaf to the entreaty. Their names were John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. They searched his person, and found papers in his boots, in the hand writing of Arnold, which disclosed the treason. They immediately conducted Andre to Col. Jameson, the officer at West Point, who commanded the advanced guard. This officer hesitated. He could not be persuaded that his general would betray that country for which he had shed his blood; and he indiscreetly permitted Andre to write to him. Arnold thus learned that Andre was arrested, and, seizing a boat, escaped on board the *Vulture*.

Washington, during these transactions, had been called, by some affairs, to Hartford, in Connecticut; but, shocked and alarmed at the news, he hastened to his camp. His first care was to learn whether Arnold had accomplices. Convinced by a strict scrutiny that none of

his other officers were guilty, his next was the painful duty of bringing to trial and execution, the interesting young Andre.

Although, from the usages of war, Washington might have given his prisoner, found as he was in disguise, the same hasty execution as Howe had some years before given to the equally interesting young Hale, yet he was aware, that in this transaction the eyes of Europe and America would be upon him, and his heart inclined him to mercy. He therefore summoned a court martial; and was careful to appoint a tribunal of whom none could complain, and who would be as merciful as public safety would allow. La Fayette and Greene were among its members; and who could doubt, if such men, with all the kindness of their nature, gave sentence of death, that such must have been the stern dictate of their military duty.

From this fate, Sir Henry Clinton strove, with all the earnestness of a tender father, to shield his favourite. He wrote to Washington, urging, that whatever Andre had done, especially his change of dress, was by the direction of Arnold, an American general;—he urged, that his detention was a violation of the sanctity of flags, and the usages of nations. Arnold also wrote in his favour, endeavouring to charge himself with the blame of the transaction; and alleging, that in his character, as an American general, he had a right to grant to Andre the usual privilege of a flag, for the purpose of conferring with him, and to provide for his safe return in any manner he should choose.

Andre appeared before his judges with a noble frankness. He was calm and composed, as to his own fate, but anxious to screen his friends, especially Sir Henry Clinton. He disguised no fact, and resorted to no subterfuge. He ingenuously disavowed what Clinton and Arnold had mainly urged in his defence, that he had come under the protection of a flag; and the fact was unquestioned that he was in disguise. Grieving at the sentence they were compelled to pronounce, his judges condemned him to death as a spy. Clinton, smitten with anguish, again sought to negotiate his release; and Washington, at his request, sent Gen. Greene down the river to meet and confer with Gen. Robinson. This friend of Andre exerted all the powers of reasoning to convince Gen. Greene that the sentence was unjust. Failing in that, he urged his release on the score of interest; he promised, that any American, charged with whatever crime, should be exchanged for Andre; and he hinted that the sparing of his favourite, would do much in the mind of the British commander in favour of the Americans. Finding all these efforts unavailing, he resorted to threats. He delivered a letter from Arnold, which contained the declaration, that if Andre was executed, the rebels of Carolina, hitherto spared by Clinton, should all be put to instant death. This interference of Arnold would have in-



ANDRE IN PRISON.

jured the cause it designed to serve, had not that cause been already hopeless.

Andre prepared to meet his approaching fate, as became a man. Life, and its fair prospects, he could calmly relinquish : but there were circumstances relating to his domestic affections, and his honour, which touched his heart. His widowed mother and his sisters, on the far shore of an intervening ocean, were watching for every vessel that might bring them news of him. One would reach them, in a few weeks ; and who would console them for its tidings ! and must they learn not only that he was dead, but that he died upon the gallows ! There was the bitterness of death ; and he besought Washington, that he might be allowed to die by the musket, and not by the halter. The cruel rules of that sanguinary science, which philanthropy hopes may, in some future age, cease to exist, compelled Washington to deny even this poor request. Andre then asked permission to write to Sir Henry Clinton, which was granted ; and to the care of this general, he commended his widowed mother, and afflicted sisters. Brought to the gallows, he said, “ And must I die thus ? ” The burst of grief was calmed by devotion. After a few minutes spent in prayer, he said, with composure, to those around him, “ bear me witness that I die, as a brave man should die ; ” and the scene closed.

Oct. 2.

Execution of
Andre.

Arnold received from the British £10,000, and the rank of brigadier-general. For this he bartered his honour, his peace, and his fame ;—changing the high esteem of the public into general detestation. The English, although they stooped to purchase the treason, could not but despise the traitor. Even his innocent children could not defend their little rights among their playmates ; but the finger of scorn was pointed at them, and they were hissed with “ traitor,” “ traitor.”*

Arnold reward-
ed, but despised.

The three captors of Andre were honoured as benefactors to their country. They received the thanks of congress, a silver medal, and a pension for life.

Cornwallis, after the battle of Camden, directed his attention to the subjugation of North Carolina ; and with that view, commenced his march from Camden towards Charlottetown. But, in order to maintain the royal cause in South Carolina, he distributed detachments of troops upon different

Sept.

Cornwallis ar-
rives at Char-
lottetown. -

* I had this little fact from a lady, who was herself a schoolmate of Arnold's children. It was hard upon these innocent beings ; but it may be usefully related. Perhaps, could Arnold have known the insults to which his conduct would have exposed his children, he would have paused, before it was too late, in his career of degeneracy : and the same reflection may save some future father, when tempted to a deed of dishonour.

parts of the frontier. He arrived at Charlottetown about the last of September.

In the meantime, Col. Ferguson, who had been previously sent into the province by Lord Cornwallis, had committed acts of so barbarous a nature, as to awaken the highest indignation. Wherever he went, devastation marked his progress, and the people determined no longer to submit to his atrocities. The mountaineers collected in great numbers, under several commanders, the principal of whom were Campbell, Shelby, and Cleveland ; and arming themselves with such weapons as could most easily be obtained, they descended to the plain, in pursuit of Ferguson. They found him posted on a woody eminence, called King's Mountain. This spot commanded the adjacent plain, and the road, leading to it, was defended by an advanced guard. The guard

Oct. 7. were soon compelled to fall back, and the mountaineers
 Defeat of Fer- advanced towards the summit. After a vigorous contest,
 guson at King's the Americans reached the brow of the hill. Ferguson
 Mountain. fell, and 300 of his party were killed and wounded. His
 successor in command surrendered. This defeat was a severe blow to Cornwallis, and rendered his situation in North Carolina dangerous.

The loyalists, intimidated, no longer evinced an eagerness to join his cause. The republicans assembled under colonels Sumpter and Marion, in whom they had equal confidence, made every effort to annoy him ; and the royal troops were in continual danger of being surprised by these active leaders. Under these circumstances, he found it most prudent to retire to South Carolina, and await the reinforcements which he there expected to receive. He accordingly repassed the Catawba, and stationed his army at Winnsborough, where he could conveniently hold communication with the forces at Camden and Ninety-Six.

Oct. In order to co-operate with Lord Cornwallis, Sir Henry
 Descent upon Clinton had detached Gen. Leslie, with a corps of 3,000
 Virginia. men, to Virginia. They landed at Portsmouth, and ravaged the adjacent country ; but, in consequence of the defeat of Ferguson, Cornwallis ordered Gen. Leslie to embark for Charleston.

Col. Sumpter continued to harass the British on all sides. He had surprised some small detachments, and made many prisoners. Tarleton was now sent by Cornwallis, to surprise this formidable officer. He found him posted at Blackstocks, near Tiger river. Tarleton commenced the attack with great impetuosity, but Sumpter soon compelled him to retreat. Sumpter was, however, dangerously wounded, and being unable to retain the command of his forces, they were disbanded.

Dec. 2. Gen. Gates had, during the period of these transac-
 Gates is super- tions, exerted himself to collect new troops, and had
 seded by Greene. greatly improved the condition of his army. He was,

however, superseded in command, by General Greene. This officer found the army at Charlottetown; and, notwithstanding the exertions of Gates, it was still feeble, and unable to cope with Cornwallis. He, therefore, determined not to hazard a general action, but to harass, if possible, the British army, and reduce it by degrees.

Gen. Leslie, with a reinforcement of 1,500 men, now joined Cornwallis, at Winnsborough. This accession of troops renewed his hopes of reducing North Carolina and Virginia. In order to render the success of the enterprise more certain, and to prevent the Virginians from sending succours to Greene, Arnold had been sent to the Chesapeake, with 50 transports and 1,600 men. He landed his troops in Virginia, and immediately commenced, what now seemed his favourite occupation, the devastation of his country.

Arnold makes a descent upon Virginia.

SECTION XV.

CAMPAIGN OF 1781.

ENGLAND, during the past year, had shown herself a brave and powerful nation. Though alone in arms, against both hemispheres, she remained unshaken. The favourite objects of Spain, next to humbling the maritime power of England, were the possession of Gibraltar and Jamaica, and the recovery of the Floridas. She had, at immense expense, laid and continued the siege of Gibraltar, which, under its commander, Elliot, made the most obstinate defence found in the annals of modern history. She had also sent out immense fleets, which, uniting with those of France and Holland, had twice threatened England with invasion; but untoward circumstances prevented the attempts. The naval operations of the belligerent powers were, during these years, of astonishing magnitude; and neither side could, at this period, claim the supremacy of the ocean. Great naval battles were fought in the West Indian and European seas; in which the allies and the English were each, alternately, the conquerors and the conquered. Each also took from the other, on various occasions, large fleets of merchant vessels. But, in these captures, the English were the most successful. Several of the West India islands changed masters during these contests. Pensacola was, in May, taken by the Spaniards, who thence extended their conquests over the whole province of Florida.

Amidst these contests, neither England nor France forgot America.

France, in addition to the force under Rochambeau, determined to send out a large fleet, under the Count de Grasse, which, after performing certain services in the West Indies, was to repair to the coast of America, and co-operate with the Count de Rochambeau and Gen. Washington. This measure proved of the highest importance to America.

The English exerted an extraordinary activity in equipping a fleet, which was to carry Lord Cornwallis a reinforcement of several regiments of English troops, besides 3,000 Hessians. They hoped that this addition of force would be sufficient to maintain their former conquests, and extend still further the progress of their arms.

The situation of America had in reality much at this period to give hopes to her enemies, and alarms to her friends. The efforts made, during the preceding year, and the successes experienced at the south, had produced the happy effect of reviving public spirit. But although temporary relief had been afforded, no permanent means of supplying the returning and increasing wants of the army, had been provided; and from this cause, the country seemed standing on the verge of ruin.

It is scarcely possible to conceive a situation more trying than that of the American congress. They were fighting, not for conquest, but existence; their powerful foe was in full strength, in the heart of their country; they had great military operations to carry on, but were almost without an army, and wholly without money. Their bills of credit had ceased to be of any worth; and they were reduced to the mortifying necessity of declaring, by their own acts, that this was the fact; as they no longer made them a legal tender, or received them in payment of taxes. Without money of some kind, an army could neither be raised, nor maintained. But the greater the exigency, the greater were the exertions of this determined band of patriots. They directed

Exertions of the
American go-
vernment to
raise money.

their agents abroad to borrow, if possible, from France, Spain, and Holland. They resorted to taxation; although they knew that the measure would be unpopular; and that they had not the power to enforce their decree.

The tax laid was apportioned among the several state governments, by whose authority it was to be collected. Perceiving that there was either great disorder and waste, or peculation in the management of the fiscal concerns, they determined on introducing a thorough reform

They appoint
Robert Morris
treasurer.

and strict economy. They accordingly appointed as treasurer, Robert Morris, of Philadelphia; a man, whose pure morals, ardent patriotism, and great knowledge of

financial concerns, eminently fitted him for this important station. The zeal and genius of Morris soon produced the most favourable results. By a national bank, to which he obtained the approbation of congress, he contrived to draw out the funds of wealthy individuals; and by bor-

rowing, in the name of the government, from this bank, and pledging for payment the taxes not yet collected, he was enabled to anticipate them, and command a ready supply. He also used his own private credit, which was good, though that of his government had failed; and, at one time, bills, signed by him individually, were in circulation, to the amount of five hundred and eighty-one thousand dollars.

While America thus received this great service from the zeal and ability of one of her sons at home, she owed not less to the exertions of another of her patriots abroad.

Franklin obtains money from France and Holland.

Franklin, at the court of France, obtained from Louis XVI. a gift of six millions of livres; and as Holland refused to lend to the United States, on their own credit, the French monarch granted to the solicitations of the minister, his guarantee to the States General; who, on this security, lent to congress the sum of ten millions of livres. Spain refused to furnish money to the United States, unless they would renounce the navigation of the Mississippi; which was steadily refused.

The funds raised from abroad and at home, were expended with the utmost prudence. All who furnished supplies, were paid by the treasurer, with the strictest punctuality; and public confidence, by degrees, sprang up in the place of distrust; order and economy in the room of confusion and waste.

Before these measures had imparted vigour to the fainting republic, an event occurred which threatened its subversion: in fact, it was one of the causes which led to the reformation in the finance, and the establishment of the new system. The whole Pennsylvania line, amounting to near 1,500 men, revolted. They were suffering the extremity of want. They had enlisted for three years, or during the war; and as the three years expired at the close of 1780, they contended that they had now a right to be discharged, and to return to their homes. The government, however, maintained that they were bound to serve until the close of the war. From these causes a violent tumult broke out on the night of the 1st of January. The soldiers declared that they would march, with arms in their hands, to the hall of congress, and demand justice. It was in vain that their officers attempted to appease them. Their most popular leader, La Fayette, and others, were constrained to quit the camp. Gen. Wayne presented himself boldly among them, with a pistol in his hand; but they menaced his life, and pointed their bayonets, as if to execute their threat. Marching towards Philadelphia, they had already advanced from Middlebrook to Princeton, when they were met by generals Reed and Sullivan; who were commissioners appointed by congress, to investigate facts, and take measures for the restoration of public tranquillity.

Jan. 1.

Revolt of the Pennsylvania line.

In the meantime, Sir Henry Clinton, informed of these affairs, made

every disposition to draw the mutineers into the service of the British. He passed with his forces into Staten Island, and sent three American loyalists, to make them the most tempting offers. These the insurgents declined. Meanwhile, the commissioners of congress offered to grant discharges to those who had enlisted for three years, or during the war. They promised remuneration for what they had lost by the depreciation of paper securities, the earliest possible payment of arrears, an immediate supply of necessary clothing, and an oblivion of their past conduct. The mutineers accepted the proposals; and congress, in due time, fulfilled the conditions. The Pennsylvanians then delivered to congress, the emissaries of Clinton, who were immediately hanged.

New Jersey
troops revolt.

A few days after this affair, the troops of New Jersey also erected the standard of revolt. Washington instantly marched against them with so powerful a force, that he compelled them to submit; and chastising their leaders with severity, the army was no longer disturbed by sedition.

In the meantime, the war was vigorously carried on at the south, by both the contending parties. Gen. Greene, as has been related, had superseded Gates in the command of the southern army, then at Charlottetown. This army, which consisted of 2,000 men, he separated into two parts. He marched at the head of one division to Hicks creek, and encamped at its confluence with the Pedee; while Colonel Morgan, at the head of the other, moved by his direction into the western part of the state, to guard the passages of the Pacolet.

Jan. 17.
Battle of Cowpens.

Cornwallis, unwilling to advance into North Carolina, while Morgan was in his rear, detached Tarleton to oppose him with a corps of eleven hundred men, and two field pieces. Tarleton found Morgan at a place called the Cowpens; and, with his usual impetuosity, commenced the attack. After one of the severest engagements, which took place during the whole war, the British were defeated. The disparity of loss in this engagement was surprising; while that of the British was three hundred killed and wounded, that of the Americans was only twelve killed, and sixty wounded. Col. Morgan took five hundred prisoners, and all the artillery and baggage of the enemy. Colonels Washington, Howard, and Pickens distinguished themselves in this action.

Morgan is pursued by Cornwallis, but is saved by the rise of waters.

Col. Morgan now directed his march towards Virginia, in order to join Gen. Greene. Cornwallis, mortified at the defeat of his favourite officer, immediately prepared to pursue him. He intended to intercept him on his route, retake the prisoners, and prevent his junction with Greene. He then designed to proceed to the sources of the Yadkin, before Greene could have crossed that river, and thus the last portion of the divided army would be his. Both Morgan and Cornwal-

lis now proceeded by forced marches towards the Catawba, each exerting themselves to reach the fords before the other. Morgan reached the Catawba, and had crossed it but two hours, when the British appeared on the opposite bank. Night coming on, Cornwallis was obliged to delay crossing until morning. A heavy rain fell, and in the morning the ford was impassable. Three days was the impatient Cornwallis obliged to wait, before the subsiding waters allowed him to pass.

In the meantime, Greene, anxious for the fate of the pursued troops, had left his army under the command of Gen. Huger, to make their way toward the sources of the rivers, where they were fordable, and had himself proceeded with only a few attendants, to join Morgan. It was at this juncture, that he arrived at the camp of Morgan, and took upon himself the command. Another race now commenced, and again the Americans foiled the British. The army had just crossed the Yadkin; and a quantity of baggage was yet remaining on the other side, when the British arrived. Again the waters suddenly rose, and Cornwallis was once more obliged to stop, and look inactively on, while the expected fruit of his plans and toilsome marches was in a moment snatched from him. And it was done by no human hand. At this signal deliverance every pious feeling of the American bosom rose in gratitude to Him, who had made to them, as to his people of old, a way through the waters, while he had closed it to their enemies.

Two divisions of
the American
army unite.

Gen. Greene now directed his course towards Guilford court-house, where he was to be joined by Gen. Huger. On the 9th of February, the two detachments of the American army reached Guilford, and effected their junction in safety. The two plans of Cornwallis were thus defeated. He resolved, now, to proceed to the Dan; intending, by reaching these fords before the Americans, to prevent their communication with Virginia. In this also, he was disappointed: the Americans, on the 14th, crossed the Dan, with all their artillery, baggage, and stores, leaving the British yet in their rear.

Cornwallis, thus disappointed in all his schemes, was compelled to relinquish them. He now determined to remain in North Carolina, and to collect the loyalists under his standard. With this view he repaired to Hillsborough; and endeavoured to prevail upon the inhabitants to espouse the royal cause. His efforts were not, however, crowned with the success he anticipated. The people generally considered the cause of congress triumphant, and feared to manifest any attachment to the royal interest; but, in some instances, the British general prevailed upon the people to take up arms.

Tarleton was sent with his legion, to the district between the Haw and Deep rivers, to encourage the rising of the loyalists in that quarter.

Gen. Greene detached Col. Lee, with a body of cavalry, to scour the country, and attack his forces. Lee soon overtook a body of loyalists, marching to Cornwallis, under the command of Col. Pyle. The Americans charged them with vigour, and the tories, supposing them to be

Two parties of
royalists de-
feated.

Tarleton's legion, and themselves mistaken for republicans, declared their attachment to the royal cause, and vociferated the cry, "long live the king." Between two and three hundred were killed by their enraged assailants, and the survivors compelled to surrender. Tarleton, by a singular coincidence, soon after met another small body of royalists, and slaughtered them, believing them to be republicans. While advancing to encounter Lee, Tarleton was called back, by Cornwallis, to Hillsborough.

Greene had now received a reinforcement of continental troops, and several bodies of militia. These troops augmented his army to 4,400; and he no longer wished to avoid an engagement with the British.

March 15.
Battle of Guil-
ford court-
house. The Ame-
ricans retreat.

Making every possible preparation for so important an event, he now marched towards Cornwallis, and took post at Guilford court-house, about eight miles from the grounds occupied by the British general. The armies met on the 15th of March. Early in the battle, some companies of the militia fled, and the American regulars were soon left to maintain the conflict alone. They fought for an hour and a half, with great bravery, and in some instances forced the British to give way. They were, however, at length compelled to retreat, but it was only step by step, and without breaking their ranks. The loss of the Americans in this engagement, was estimated at 1,300 men; that of the British, in proportion to their number, was more considerable. Greene now retreated to Speedwell's iron works, ten miles from the field of battle. Cornwallis, although he had the reputation of a victor, found himself, in consequence of his losses, obliged to retreat, while Greene was in a condition to pursue; thus affording the singular spectacle of a vanquished army pursuing a victorious one. Cornwallis retired to Bell's mills, and, after a few days' repose, marched towards Wilmington. Greene, having collected the fugitives of his army, followed the British, and, with his light infantry, continually infested their rear. He, however, soon altered his course, and proceeded, by forced marches towards Camden in South Carolina. On Cornwallis' arrival at Wil-

Cornwallis pro-
ceeds to Virginia.

Carolina, or to march into Virginia, and join the forces under Arnold. A council of war was called, which decided upon the last measure, and the British general, after having remained in Wilmington a few days, to refresh his troops, proceeded towards Petersburg; leaving the command of the forces in

the Carolinas, to Lord Rawdon, a young man of much talent and military ardour, who, he hoped, would be able to hold the army of Greene in check, keep possession of the province, and establish the British authority.

SECTION XVI.

CAMPAIGN OF 1781.

[Continued.]

LORD RAWDON established his head quarters at Camden, a place fortified with great care. The other principal posts of the British in Carolina, were Charleston, Ninety-six, and Augusta. They had, however, garrisoned several others of minor importance, so that their forces were much divided. The disaffection of the inhabitants to the British cause compelled them thus to divide their troops, in order to maintain such points as were necessary to their subsistence, and their communication with each other. The intelligence of the retreat of Cornwallis gave the republicans new hopes, and new vigour. Sumpter and Marion, by their bold but prudent movements, were continually gaining advantages over the royalists. They thus made themselves regarded as leaders who would conduct their followers to glory and success, and not lead them into disgrace or danger; and hundreds flocked to their standard, who were organized into regular companies. Thus they became so powerful, that they were able to hold in check the whole of Lower Carolina, while Greene, with his army, faced Lord Rawdon in the Highlands. This officer, finding that his position was becoming dangerous, strengthened his army by calling in his troops from places not susceptible of defence.

Sumpter and
Marion annoy
the British.

Gen. Greene, at this time, appeared in view of Camden, at the head of his army, and proceeded to intrench himself within a mile's distance, at Hobkirk's Hill. Rawdon would have retreated towards Charleston; but the way was infested by the light troops of Sumpter and Marion. He perceived that the Americans trusted to the strength of their post, and guarded it with negligence. Leaving Camden in the care of the convalescents, he marched, with every being in his army capable of carrying a firelock, on the night of the 25th of April; and taking a circuitous route, he fell, by surprise, on the left flank of the Americans.

April 25.
Americans surprised and defeated at Hobkirk's Hill.

Greene, perceiving that the British moved in a solid, but not extended column, immediately caused them to be attacked, at the same time, on both flanks, and in front. The battle became general and fierce. The royalists gave way. Rawdon pushed forward his reserve. The Americans, in their turn, retreated, and the efforts of Greene and his officers, to rally them, were ineffectual. The loss of the Americans, in killed, wounded, and missing, was 268; that of the British, nearly equal.

The American general, after this affair, retired from Hobkirk's Hill, and encamped, about five miles from his former position, to re-organize his army. Rawdon, like Cornwallis at Guilford, found the effects of the battle to be rather those of a defeat than a victory. He was inferior to his enemy in cavalry, and could not pursue him. His army was weakened. The inhabitants, in every direction, were rising against him; and he had reason to tremble for several of his posts, which, as he was informed, were invested by the Americans. Thus situated, he

May 10.
Rawdon evacuates Camden.

British forts taken by the Americans.

evacuated Camden, razed its fortifications, and retreating before the foe, which he boasted of having conquered, made his way towards Charleston. On the 13th of May, he arrived at Nelson's ferry; where he learned, that the forts, which the Americans had invested, had fallen into their power. Fort Watson capitulated to Marion and Lee; fort Motte, to Sumpter; and Georgetown, to Marion. The prisoners, taken in these forts, amounted to nearly 800; and in fort Motte, was a considerable quantity of military stores. From Nelson's ferry, Rawdon moved to Eutaw Springs.

May 22.
Greene invests Ninety-Six.

Greene now formed the design of reducing Ninety-Six and Augusta; the only two posts which remained to the British in the upper country, and which were already invested by militia, under colonels Clarke and Pickens. He first marched his army against Ninety-Six, which was the strong hold of the royalists; and, on the 22d of May, commenced a regular siege.

June 5.
Augusta capitulates to the Americans.

Meantime, Rawdon, whose army had been reinforced by three regiments from Ireland, put himself in motion to oppose the American commander, and preserve his fortresses, particularly that of Ninety-Six. On his march, he learned that Augusta had capitulated to the American militia, commanded by the gallant Col. Pickens.

Greene now learned that the enemy approached with fresh forces; and he knew that his troops were in no condition to contend against the army of Rawdon, combined with the garrison of Ninety-Six. Unwilling, however, to leave the place without an effort, which should, at

least, vindicate the honour of the American arms, he made a vigorous assault upon the fort, and gained a considerable advantage, though he did not succeed in capturing it. He then removed his army beyond the Tiger and Broad rivers. Rawdon approached, and made some unavailing attempts to draw Greene into an engagement. After this, he entered and examined Ninety-Six; and finding the place not capable of withstanding a regular attack, he abandoned it, and directed his march towards Orangeburg; where, on the 12th of July, he established his head-quarters. Greene followed him; but, finding his position covered by the windings of the Edisto, he bent his march, on the 16th, to the heights which border the Santee. The season proving uncommonly hot and sickly, the contending armies, by tacit consent, suspended their operations.

June 18.
Greene makes
an unsuccessful
attack upon
Ninety-Six, and
retires.

During this period, occurred the last scene of the tragedy of Colonel Hayne. At the commencement of the war, few men could have been found more to be envied than Isaac Hayne. Blessed with the goods of fortune, eminently endowed with those qualities which gain the love of men, possessing all the finer sensibilities which ennoble our nature, he was all the husband, the father, the friend, the patriot. At the commencement of the war, he entered with ardour into the views of the republicans, and assisted in person at the defence of Charleston. On the surrender of that city, Hayne, whose consequence, as a leader, was appreciated by the British, was offered the alternative of becoming a British subject, or going into rigorous confinement. For himself, he would not have hesitated a moment to choose captivity. But his wife and children were at his plantation, languishing with the small pox. And not only did he feel it agony, at such a time, to be separated from them, but he knew, that should he refuse the offer of the British, a lawless soldiery would violate and lay waste the retreat of his suffering family. Torn by conflicting duties, who could blame him, if, in such a situation, the husband and the father triumphed over the patriot. He consented to invest himself with the condition of a British subject, on the solemn assurances of the British general, Patterson, that he should not be called on to bear arms against his countrymen. Meanwhile, the republicans had found means to change the fortune of the war. The British, obliged to act on the defensive, no longer regarded their sacred engagements, but called on those enrolled as their subjects, to take up arms in their defence. Hayne, among others, found that he could not remain peaceably at home. His home, too, was desolated by the loss of his wife and two children, who had died with the small-pox. Feeling released from an obligation which the British themselves had violated, he once more took arms in the cause which he had ever held dear. Engaged as a colonel, commanding a corps in

the partisan warfare, he was taken prisoner, and confined in a deep dungeon in Charleston. Without even the form of trial, Lord Rawdon, with Col. Balfour, the commandant of Charleston, contrary to the usages of war, sentenced him to death. The royalists, with the governor at their head, petitioned for the prisoner, and pleaded the impolicy of the act. The most distinguished women of Charleston, touched with his virtues, pleaded his cause, with all the feeling and eloquence of their sex. But more than all, his children, clad in mourning for their mother,

appeared before the judges, and stretching out their little hands, pleaded and entreated with tears, for the life of their surviving parent. But they pleaded in vain ; and Hayne was led to execution.

Aug. 4.
Execution of
Col. Hayne.

Amidst the execrations, which Rawdon's unrelenting cruelty had, in this instance, drawn, not only upon himself, but upon the cause which he had thought proper to use such means in vindicating, that general left the capital of Carolina, and returned to England, the command of the army devolving on Col. Stuart.

SECTION XVII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1781.

[Continued.]

GENERAL GREENE, still in his camp, at the High Hills of the Santee, had made the best use of the time allowed him by the suspension of arms. It was now the beginning of September, the sultriness of the season had abated, and Greene determined, if possible, to dispossess the British of the remaining posts in the upper country. He crossed the Wateree, and marched, circuitously, to the Congaree ; passed it with all his army, and descended along its right bank, intending to attack Col. Stuart, who, at this time, occupied the post of Macord's Ferry.

The royalists fell back upon Eutaw Springs ; thither Gen. Greene pursued them ; and, on the 8th of September, the armies engaged. The battle of Eutaw Springs, is memorable as being one of the most bloody, and valiantly contested fields of the war ; and also for being the last of any note that occurred at the south. Gen. Greene drew up his forces with great skill, and made the attack. The troops, on both sides, fought with great bravery. The American officers remarked, that, when ne-

Sept. 8.
Battle of Eutaw
Springs.

cessary, their soldiers resorted promptly to the use of the bayonet, which they had formerly appeared to dread. After a severe contest, victory seemed to declare for the republicans. The British were routed, and fled ; but finding, in their flight, a large house and some other objects, affording shelter, they rallied, and repulsed their assailants with heavy loss. Greene, finding it impossible to dislodge them, retreated to his camp, bearing 500 prisoners. The whole loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about 1,000, that of the Americans, six hundred. Congress voted their thanks to Gen. Greene, and presented him with a conquered standard and a golden medal. Greene was ably seconded by his officers, among whom the gallant colonels Lee and Washington are mentioned as particularly deserving. The latter was wounded, and taken prisoner. Greene's army having been reinforced, the British no longer dared to keep the open country, but retired to Charleston. Thus had the Americans, in a few months, recovered the whole of the states of South Carolina and Georgia, except their capitals. The skill and valour, manifested by Greene, in their defence, have given him a rank among the heroes of the revolution, second to none but to Washington.

While the war at the south was progressing, other important operations were going on in other parts of the union ; and we now go back several months, in the order of time, to give an account of their progress. It will be recollected, that we left both Cornwallis and the traitor Arnold in the state of Virginia. The latter had landed on the 4th of January, with a force of 1,600 men, in the vicinity of Richmond. He destroyed the public stores in Richmond ; and sent Col. Sincoe, who laid waste those in Westham. In their course, Arnold and his officers committed the most wanton depredations on private property.

Jan. 4.
Arnold ravages
Virginia.

Washington, although perplexed with the recent mutiny of the troops, and the deranged state of the finances, concerted measures with the French, by means of which, he hoped to relieve Virginia, and obtain possession of the traitor and his force. La Fayette, at the head of 1,200 light infantry, was detached towards Virginia, while the commander of the French fleet, at Rhode Island, despatched a squadron of eight sail of the line, under the Chevalier Destouches, to cut off the retreat of Arnold from the Chesapeake. But Clinton, gaining intelligence of the plan, sent Admiral Arbuthnot to the relief of Arnold, with a squadron of equal force. These two fleets met, and fought off Cape Henry, on the 16th of March, and suffered equal, though not very considerable loss. But the French were constrained to relinquish their design, and return to Rhode

La Fayette sent
to Virginia.

March 16.
Battle between
the French and
English fleets, off
Cape Henry.

Island. Upon hearing this, La Fayette, who had arrived at Annapolis, marched to the head of the Elk.

Clinton, finding how narrowly Arnold had escaped, sent to his assistance Gen. Philips, with 2,000 men. Thus reinforced, Arnold resumed the work of pillage and destruction. La Fayette arrived in time to save Richmond; but he witnessed from that place, the conflagration of Manchester, on the opposite bank of the James. About this time, both parties learned the approach of Cornwallis; and it became the

object of Philips and Arnold, to form a junction with him, at Petersburg. They arrived before Cornwallis. Junction of the British armies at Petersburg. While awaiting his arrival, Gen. Philips sickened, and died on the 13th of May, and, on the 20th, Cornwallis reached Petersburg.

After remaining a few days at Petersburg, Cornwallis, now in command of the combined forces, directed their march into the interior of Virginia, supposing, as was the fact, that the Americans were too weak, and too much dispersed, to offer any effectual opposition. There were, however, three separate corps of republican troops in Virginia; one, under Gen. La Fayette; another, and a smaller one, under the Baron Steuben; and the Pennsylvania troops, under Gen. Wayne. Had they been united, they were by no means a match for the army of Cornwallis. But La Fayette, who had the chief command, showed how

well he had profited by the lessons of Washington. Prudent and brave; understanding, far better than the British, La Fayette harasses Cornwallis. the ground over which the armies moved, he harassed his foe, and restrained his motions; without once suffering himself to be led into a snare, or his army to be endangered. When Cornwallis pursued, he retreated; when, intent upon some other object, his foe held another direction, immediately La Fayette pursued in his turn, hanging upon his rear, and preventing him from sending out straggling parties. This conduct kept up the spirits of the republicans, and prevented the British from realising their sanguine expectation, that many would flock to their standard.

While at Westover, Cornwallis detached Col. Tarleton Tarleton surprises Charlotteville. to Charlotteville, where the legislature of Virginia were in session, and, at the same time, sent Col. Sincoe to the Point of Fork, at the junction of the two rivers, which form the James, to seize some stores at that place. Both these expeditions were, in a measure, successful; but Tarleton was disappointed of the prize on which he most calculated. This was the capture of Gov. Jefferson, who, after having provided for the safety of a considerable quantity of arms and ammunition, found means to elude the vigilance of his pursuers.

Cornwallis, while thus ranging the interior of Virginia, constantly

checked, however, by La Fayette, was suddenly recalled to the sea coast, by an order from Sir Henry Clinton. That general, apprehensive that the Americans and French meditated an attack on New-York, and fearing that he was not in sufficient force to resist them, had directed Cornwallis to embark 3,000 of his troops, to join his garrison. Intent on obeying the mandate, Cornwallis marched with his army to Portsmouth, where he received orders to retain the troops. Clinton, having received a reinforcement of 3,000 Germans, now believed he could dispense with further aid; and ordered Cornwallis to proceed to Point Comfort, and there fortify, in order that the British might have, in any event, a secure retreat. Cornwallis found reasons for disliking this post, and obtained, of Clinton, permission to select another. He fixed on Yorktown, a village which is situated on the right bank of York river. Upon the opposite side of the stream, on a projecting point, which narrows and deepens its channel, is the smaller village of Gloucester. Cornwallis entered Yorktown, August 23d, and proceeded to erect fortifications.

Aug. 23.
Cornwallis enters Yorktown.

We have already seen the difficulties, which, from an exhausted army and treasury, environed, at the commencement of this campaign, the commander-in-chief. Washington was, in fact, a main spring in the deliberations and decisions of congress, as well as the director of field operations. He had learned that a considerable French fleet, and a body of land troops, were soon to arrive upon the coast. Anxious to avail himself of the naval superiority, which this force would give him, and to strike some important blow, the commander-in-chief, with the advice of Rochambeau, whom he met at Wethersfield, in Connecticut, determined to attack New-York. Clinton, apprised of the plan, determined, as we have seen, to recall a part of the forces of Cornwallis, but was prevented by the arrival of 3,000 German troops, which increased his garrison to upwards of 10,000.

May.
Washington determines to attack New-York.

In the meantime, Washington was disappointed in his expected recruits. Instead of 12,000 regular troops, which he was to have had, he could hardly muster 5,000, a number, by no means adequate to the projected siege. He learned that De Grasse, the expected French admiral, could not remain on the American coast longer than October and finally, that his destination was the Chesapeake. From these considerations, Washington suddenly changed his plan of operations, and bent all his calculations to take Cornwallis in the snare which he seemed laying for himself.

Aug.
Changes his plans, in order to take Cornwallis.

Success depended upon secrecy; for had Sir Henry Clinton been apprised of his plan, he might, at first, have defeated it. But it may reasonably be supposed, that few, at this time, were in the counsels of

the commander-in-chief; for never was a secret better kept, or an enemy more completely deceived. Washington made every show of preparation to attack New-York. He broke up his camp at New Windsor, and advanced down the river to Kingsbridge. The French army, consisting of 5,000 men, under Rochambeau, had marched from Rhode Island, and joined him early in July. They appeared daily to expect the arrival of De Grasse at New-York. Suddenly Washington crossed the Hudson, and directed the rapid march of the allied armies across New Jersey. But he had caused a report to be spread, that this was merely a feint, to draw Clinton from his fortifications, that he might fight him in the open field. Clinton deceived, remained within his fortress. Washington, now learning that De Grasse was near the Chesapeake, no longer delayed crossing the Delaware; and steering direct for his

Aug. 25. Washington arrives at the head of Elk. object, well satisfied, that the time for his foe to prevent its accomplishment, was past. He arrived, after a rapid march, at the head of Elk, the northern extremity of the Chesapeake, on the 25th of August; and having made the necessary arrangements for the transportation of his army, he proceeded in person to Virginia, attended by the Count de Rochambeau; and, on the 14th of September, he joined La Fayette at Williamsburg.

De Grasse enters the Chesapeake. The Count De Grasse, with twenty-five sail of the line, entered the mouth of the Chesapeake, only one hour before Washington arrived at the head of Elk, and immediately performed the part assigned to him, by blocking up the mouths of the York and James rivers; thus cutting off all communication between the British at Yorktown and New-York. He also opened a communication with La Fayette. When Cornwallis first took post at Yorktown, this general had occupied a position high up the river, but had now descended as far as Williamsburg. The allies had a fear that Cornwallis, seeing the toils into which he was falling, would turn upon La Fayette, who was his inferior in force. To prevent this, 3,000 light troops, under the Marquis de St. Simon, were sent up the river in boats to join him at Williamsburg.

Cornwallis had strengthened his works, and could only be overcome by a regular siege. The allies needed artillery, and other preparations for besieging Yorktown. These they expected from Rhode Island, to be brought by a French squadron, commanded by the Count de Barras, who had made sail three days before the arrival of De Grasse in the Chesapeake. To prevent falling in with the British fleet, Barras had stood far out to sea. While expecting him, De Grasse, on the 5th of September, saw, off the capes, a British fleet of nineteen sail, under Admiral Greaves. The French commander, advised by Washington, behaved with admirable skill and prudence. He

engaged the British partially, to draw them from their anchorage ground ; by which means, the Count de Bar-ras, as he expected, was enabled to pass by them into the bay, but refused a general engagement, which would have been putting at hazard a game, which, with pru-dence, was already in the hands of the allies.

Sept. 5.
Partial action
between the
English and
French fleets.

SECTION XVIII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1781.

[Continued.]

CORNWALLIS had now no hope of escape, but from Clinton. To him he had found means to represent his situation ; and, closely invested as he was, he received an answer to his communication. By this he was informed, that troops would, if possible, embark from New-York for his relief, by the 5th of October.

Clinton, hoping to draw off some part of the forces which menaced Cornwallis, projected an expedition against New London, in Con-necticut, the command of which he gave to the traitor, Arnold, lately re-turned from Virginia. The access to the port of New London, was guarded by forts Trumbull and Griswold, erected on the opposite banks of the Thames. Fort Trumbull was taken without much effort. The garrison of fort Griswold was composed of militia, many of whom were the fathers of the families in the vicinity, hastily collected ; and, under the com-mand of the estimable Col. Ledyard. They made a resolute defence, and killed numbers of the assailants. At length, however, they were overpowered, and ceased to resist. As the British entered, an officer inquired, “ who commands this fort ? ” “ I did,” said Col. Ledyard, “ but you do now ; ” and presented his sword. The monster took it, and plunged it in his bosom. This was the signal for slaughter. Forty, out of one hundred and sixty, were all that escaped. Scarcely was there a father of a family, in this little town of Groton, but was that night butchered, and almost its entire population were made widows and orphans.

Sept. 6.
Fort Trumbull
taken.

Fort Griswold
taken, and the
garrison butch-
ered.

New London was next laid in ashes, and a great num-ber of vessels richly laden, fell into the hands of Arnold. Washington was not, however, moved to quit his post at

Arnold burns
New London.

the south. The people of Connecticut showed ominous signs of resistance, and Arnold judged it prudent to return to New-York.

Cornwallis, in the belief that he should receive succour from Clinton, abandoned his outposts and defences, and withdrew entirely within the fortifications of Yorktown. Many of his own officers considered this as a great error. They had urged him to attempt crossing the river, and regaining the open country, through which they might, as they believed, proceed by rapid marches, to New-York. While he delayed and deliberated, the small chance that was left him of escaping in this way, was destroyed.

The combined armies moved from Williamsburg, on the 25th of September, and in five days were collected in the vicinity of Yorktown. Their whole force amounted to 16,000; 7,000 of whom were French. They commenced their works on the night of the 6th of October, in which they made rapid advances, notwithstanding a heavy fire from the fort. On the 9th, several batteries were completed, and a heavy

Oct. 6.
Yorktown
besieged.

destructive cannonade commenced. On the 11th, they began their second parallel, which was only three hundred yards from the fort. In order to complete their trenches, it was necessary to dislodge the English from

two redoubts which were in advance of their main works. Washington determined on carrying them by assault, and, taking advantage of

Oct. 14.
Two redoubts
attacked and
carried.

the emulation between the two armies, to make success more certain, he assigned to the French, under Baron de Viomesnil, the taking of one; while, to the Americans, under the Marquis La Fayette and Col. Hamilton, he as-

signed the capture of the other. The ardour and eloquence of the officers stirred up their troops to the highest pitch of valour; and their onset was so furious, that the British, though they bravely resisted, could not long withstand them. Both the redoubts were taken, not, however, without loss to the allies, of which the French party suffered the greatest share.

Nothing now remained to prevent the completion of the second parallel; which being finished, Cornwallis had no alternative before him but death or submission. In fact, his walls were already broken, and his ditches filled up by their falling parts. On the night of the 16th,

Oct. 16.
The British under
Abercrombie
make a sortie.

the British, under Gen. Abercrombie, made a vigorous sortie, took two batteries, and spiked eleven cannon. They were charged furiously by the French, under De Noailles, and driven back to their encampments.

Thus situated, Cornwallis made one more effort, which had he, as advised, sooner attempted, might perhaps have saved his army. This was to cross the river in the night, to Gloucester Point, where a small garrison of the British, commanded by Tarleton, were watched by the French, under De Choise. He left his baggage, and the sick and

wounded; whom, in a letter to Washington, he recommended to his generosity. His army were to embark in three divisions. A part had already crossed, and landed at Gloucester Point; a part were upon the river; the third division alone had not embarked. The air and the water were calm, and Cornwallis's hopes of escape were high. In a moment, the sky was overcast, and a tempest arose. The elements were armed against him, as if again he was checked by that invisible power which seemed to watch over the destiny of the American people, and which before, by the swelling of the waters, had saved their army from his grasp. The wind and rain were violent, and his boats were driven down the river.

Cornwallis attempts to escape.

The day appeared, and the besiegers discovering their situation, opened a destructive fire upon his scattered and weakened army; and they were glad, when the abating tempest allowed it, to return to their almost dismantled fortifications.

Seeing now no hope of escape, his army wasting by the irresistible fire of the American works, Cornwallis no longer delayed to treat for a surrender. Before noon, on the 17th, he sent a flag to Washington, requesting a cessation of arms for twenty-four hours, and the appointment of commissioners to settle the terms of surrender. Washington, fearing the arrival of British troops, refused to grant a truce longer than two hours; and signified, that within that time he should expect the propositions of the British commander. Cornwallis wished to obtain liberty for the European troops to return to their homes, upon their parole of not again serving in the American war; and he also wished to make terms for the Americans who had followed his fortunes. Both these conditions Washington refused, as the European soldiers would be at liberty to serve in garrisons at home; and the case of the Americans belonged to the civil authority. All that the most earnest persuasion could obtain from Washington on this point, was permission for a sloop, laden with such persons as Cornwallis selected, to be allowed to pass, without search or visit, to New-York; he being accountable for the number of persons it carried, as prisoners of war. The whole remaining British force was to be surrendered to the allies; the land army, with its munitions, to the Americans; the marine, to the French.

Oct. 17.

Cornwallis capitulates.

Agreeably to the articles of capitulation, the posts of Yorktown and Gloucester were surrendered, on the 19th of October. The prisoners, exclusive of seamen, amounted to more than 7,000, of whom 2,000, were sick or wounded. Five hundred and fifty-two of the British had fallen during the siege. Sixty pieces of cannon, also, principally of brass, fell into the hands of the Americans. Two frigates and twenty transports, with their crews, fell into the hands of the French. Gen.

Oct. 19.

British land-forces surrender to the Americans, and the fleet to the French.

Lincoln, who had suffered the mortification of surrendering an American army, at Charleston, was, with peculiar delicacy, selected by the commander-in-chief, to receive the submission of the British.

The French and Americans added, on this occasion, the praise of generosity and humanity, to that of wisdom and valour. Their leaders vied with each other, in acts of kindness to the conquered officers, and every possible attention was paid to the accommodation of the soldiers.

On the day in which the capitulation was signed, Clinton passed Sandy Hook, with a powerful force, to go to the succour of Cornwallis; he appeared off the capes of Virginia on the 24th; where, hearing of the surrender of the army, he immediately returned to New-York.

This event caused a burst of joy and exultation throughout America. Nor did the people, or the civil rulers, amidst the honours which were showered upon the American and French commanders, forget to acknowledge their supreme obligations to the GREAT COMMANDER and RULER of armies and of nations.

Washington would gladly have detained the French fleet to co-operate in a descent upon Charleston; but De Grasse being under orders from the French court, to be in the West Indies on a certain day, dared not hazard the detention of his fleet: and made sail for those islands without delay.

Gen. La Fayette, who had sought America in her adversity, left her as soon as prosperity dawned upon her fortunes. He embarked about this time for France, leaving deep, in the hearts of a grateful people, the remembrance of his virtues and his services.

La Fayette returns to France.

SECTION XIX.

1781. VERMONT was, at this period, an independent nation. That its territory was first settled by grants from New Hampshire, and afterwards decided, by the English government, to belong to New-York, are facts which have already been stated. Had New-York, at the time of this decision, given quiet possession to those individuals who had purchased, and cultivated farms under New-Hampshire, Vermont would now have been a portion of that state. But it being attempted to eject these settlers by force, they forcibly resisted.

Situation of Vermont.

In this situation, the inhabitants applied to congress for its interference, and were, by this body, recommended to submit, for a time, to the authority of New-York; but, being resolutely opposed to this step,

they met in convention, in 1777, and declared the New Hampshire grants to be an independent state, under the title of "New Connecticut, alias Vermont;" the first appellation, and the ungraceful "alias," being afterwards dropped.

1777.

Declares itself independent.

Their affairs were, at first, managed by several of the leading men, called "a Council of Safety." Their first legislature met at Windsor, in March, 1778. In the same month, a portion of the towns east of Connecticut river, petitioned to unite with Vermont. To this request the Vermontese acceded; but, in consequence of the complaints of New Hampshire, the following year, the union was dissolved.

Application was next made to congress for admission into the confederacy, but New-York presented a counter-memorial; and, in consequence, the separate existence of Vermont, as a state, was not acknowledged.

In the summer of 1781, the situation of Vermont was singular in the extreme. The politicians of that settlement, at the head of whom were Gov. Chittenden, and the brothers, Ethan and Ira Allen, while they had boldly, but warily, maintained its rights against the claims of New-York, New Hampshire, and the decisions of congress, had, at the same time, defended the territory, frontier as it was, against the British, by secret negotiations;* which had, for their apparent object, that Vermont should place itself under British protection. But the people of Vermont, warm with the enthusiasm which animated the Americans against the British, would have risen in vengeance against the rulers who thus preserved them, had they known the means by which their protection was effected. Affairs were, however, coming to a crisis, and but for the fortunate capture of Cornwallis, it is impossible to foresee what would have been the situation of those patriotic men,† who, in this singular manner, ran such personal hazard, to save the people, against their own will, and play their political game for their advantage.

Vermont negotiates with the British.

On one occasion, the whole plot was near disclosure. Gen. St. Leger, with a British force, had taken post at Ticonderoga, while Gen.

* The only persons in the secret were Thomas Chittenden, Moses Robinson, Samuel Safford, Ethan Allen, Ira Allen, Timothy Brownson, John Fassett, Joseph Fay.

† It is not to be supposed, that these persons, in negotiating with the British, acted a part of which they were ashamed, because they found it politic to conceal it from the people. On this subject, read a portion of Ethan Allen's letter to congress, in 1781. "I do not hesitate to say, that I am fully grounded in opinion, that Vermont has an indubitable right to agree on terms of a cessation of hostilities with Great Britain, provided they persist in rejecting her application for an union with them. Vermont, of all people, would be the most miserable, were she obliged to defend the independence of the united claiming states, and they, at the same time, at full liberty to overturn and ruin the independence of Vermont. I am as resolutely determined to maintain the independence of Vermont, as congress are that of the United States; and rather than fail, will retire with the hardy Green Mountain Boys, into the desolate caverns of the mountains, and wage war with human nature at large!"

Enos, with a body of Vermont volunteers, was lying at Castleton. Two scouting parties, from these armies, met ; and, in a rencontre between them, a serjeant, belonging to the corps of Gen. Enos, was killed. St. Leger, perhaps thinking that the negotiations, by which the British had reason to believe that Vermont would soon declare for them, were too long concealed from the people, caused particular attention to be paid to the funeral obsequies of the serjeant ; sent a messenger, bearing through the country, the clothes of the dead man, which were sent to his widow, and an open letter to Gen. Enos, apologizing for his death. Immediately there was a cry of treason throughout the country, and the camp of Enos. This general and other officers, who were now in the secret, immediately on this emergency, wrote letters to Gov. Chittenden, who was then in Charleston, where the legislature were in session. The messenger, who carried these letters, was not in the secret ; and he, proclaiming through the streets of Charleston, the extraordinary message of St. Leger, was followed by a crowd to the lodgings of the governor. Great confusion ensued, and as the governor perceived that Enos, in his letters, had mingled affairs respecting the private negotiations, with other matters, proper to be made public, he found means, in the uproar, to delay showing these letters until morning ; and such was the strait to which those in the secret were reduced, that, during the night, they made out new letters from Gen. Enos, to lay before the legislature ; in which the mention made of public affairs was retained, while that of the private negotiations was omitted ; and such representations were otherwise made, as were calculated to allay the public ferment. In the meantime, a rumour arrived of the capture of Cornwallis. This was confidentially sent by the governor to St. Leger, and urged as a reason why Vermont should not, at that time, declare for the British. One hour after St. Leger had received these despatches, he received another from the south, confirming the intelligence of the surrender of Cornwallis. The British army immediately returned to Canada, thus relieving the actors in this singular affair, from the danger they had drawn upon themselves, in thus deeply playing a double game.

Poverty of the
American go-
vernment.

The poverty of the United States, as a government, was again almost incredible. The great effort made by congress in the winter of 1780—81, enabled them to provide for the campaign of the ensuing season, and it was most fortunate for America that the result was favourable ; for it seems impossible that another active and expensive campaign, could have been sustained. There was no fault in the arrangements of congress ; no remission of activity, prudence, and patriotism, on the part of the treasurer. On the contrary, congress had made the most judicious arrangements early in the winter of 1781. They were aided in their

deliberations by Washington, who, at their request, had stopped at Philadelphia, on his way from Yorktown to his accustomed winter quarters. They laid taxes, and apportioned them among the several states; and made such other regulations, that the commander-in-chief had sanguine hopes that every thing would be in readiness for an early campaign, as it was wisely considered, that the way to obtain an honourable peace, was to be in readiness for war. But the several state governments wholly failed of paying their quotas, alleging the utter inability of their constituents to support further taxation. Although, by the judicious arrangements of Morris, the public expenses were much diminished, yet they were still necessarily great, and must so continue, although the means of meeting them thus unexpectedly failed. At

the commencement of 1782 not a dollar remained in the treasury. "Yet to the financier," says Marshall, Trials and magnanimity of the treasurer.

"every eye was turned; to him was stretched forth the empty hand of every public creditor, and against him, instead of the the state authorities, were the complaints and imprecations of every unsatisfied claimant directed." The keen sense of the ingratitude of his country, experienced by this injured patriot, and at the same time his resolution not to abandon the cause of a people who were so unjust to him, were thus expressed in a letter to the commander-in-chief:—"With such gloomy prospects as this letter affords, I am tied here to be baited by continual clamorous demands; and for the forfeiture of all that is valuable in life, and which I hoped at this moment to enjoy, I am to be paid by invective. Scarce a day passes, in which I am not tempted to give back into the hands of congress, the power which they have delegated, and to lay down a burden, which presses me to the earth. Nothing prevents me but a knowledge of the difficulties which I am obliged to struggle under. What may be the success of my efforts, God only knows; but to leave my post at present, would, I know, be ruinous. This candid state of my situation and feelings, I give to your bosom, because you, who have already felt and suffered so much, will be able to sympathize with me."

The people of England, who felt severely the expenses of the war, on hearing the disasters which had attended their armies, particularly that of Cornwallis, no longer suppressed their discontent. They saw, that

The people of England wish for peace with America.

after the lives and property which had been expended, and after all the intrigues of their government, nothing remained to them on the American shores but New-York, Charleston, and Savannah; and these posts could only be maintained by strong fleets and garrisons. All hope of reducing the Americans to subjection now vanished. Still the king, in his speech at the opening of parliament, showed his unwillingness to relinquish his sway over what he had, during his life, consi-

dered his patrimony. The people, however, persisted in their wishes for peace, and loudly demanded the removal of ministers, who advised the king to measures so much against the public interest.

The house of commons, about the last of February, moved by this expression of feeling, as well as by the eloquent speeches of General Conway, and others, voted, "that they should consider as enemies to his majesty and their country, all who should advise, or attempt, a further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of America." This vote was followed by the resignation of the office of prime minister, by Lord North, and the appointment of an administration favourable to peace.

Sir Guy Carleton supersedes Clinton. Sir Henry Clinton was now superseded in command by Sir Guy Carleton; whose conciliating conduct as governor of Canada, had gained him the esteem of the Americans. The general sentiment of all parties was now favourable to peace; and after this, there were no hostile operations, except a few of inconsiderable importance in South Carolina. In one of these, fell the young and gallant Col. Laurens, lamented by Washington and the whole army.

Admiral Digby, who the summer before had arrived in New-York, with reinforcements for Clinton, was appointed, with Carleton, by the British ministry, to treat with the Americans for peace, on the ground of acknowledging their independence; but congress, finding that parliament had not sanctioned this step of the ministry, refused to negotiate with their agents. Whether this was, or was not, as many supposed, a snare which was set for the Americans, congress, without doubt, encountered a stratagem, of which the object was to destroy their alliance with France and Spain, by procuring the American government to treat separately from its allies; but this the congress steadily refused.

That body, careful to be ready for the first honourable overtures which they should receive, had appointed John Adams, their minister at the Hague, for this purpose: with him they now associated Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, at this time the representatives of the United States at the court of Spain, and Henry Laurens. The latter, while crossing the ocean, in 1780, to negotiate a commercial treaty between the United States and Holland, was captured by a British frigate. His papers were thrown overboard; but being recovered, and found to contain a sketch of a treaty with the states of Holland, he was convicted of high treason, and confined in the tower, at London. Mr. Adams was appointed to succeed him, and empowered to negotiate a loan of money in Holland, and also to conclude a treaty of amity and commerce. On the 19th of April, 1782, the United Provinces acknowledged the independence of

Treaty with
Holland.

America, and on the 8th of October, the treaty of amity and commerce was concluded.

To meet the American commissioners at Paris, the court of St. James sent Mr. Fitz Herbert and Mr. Oswald. On the 20th of January, 1783, preliminary articles of peace were signed at Versailles. The definitive treaty was deferred until the adjustment of affairs between England and France, and was not signed until the 3d of September, 1783. The terms granted to America by this treaty, in respect to extent of territory, and right to the fisheries of New England, were equal to the most sanguine expectations of her friends. The English ministers then in power, seemed to be aware of the policy of making America independent in fact, as well as in name : probably the more so, as a contrary disposition was manifested by France. Both powers seemed aware, that if she remained in a state of dependence, it must, from the posture of affairs, be a dependence upon France, rather than upon England. The American negotiators were men of great ability and ardent patriotism, and well knew how to turn this state of things to the advantage of their country.

1783.

Articles of peace
are signed at
Paris.

But in the general pacification, and amidst the protracted negotiations of the several parties, nothing was stipulated on the subject of neutral rights, which had been the moving cause of the coalition against England ; and thus a door was left open for future contention and bloodshed.

The situation of the rising Republic of America was, during these long negotiations, extremely critical. Had congress possessed the means of paying their officers and soldiers, there would have been nothing to apprehend from the disbanding of so patriotic an army. But the officers, aware of the poverty of the treasury, doubted whether it would be in the power of congress to fulfil the stipulation made in October, 1780, granting to them half pay for life. While the independence of their country was uncertain, they had pressed forward to the attainment of that object ; and regardless of themselves, had sacrificed their fortunes, their possessions, and their health. Now that great object was attained, they began to brood over their own situation ; and fears arose, that should they disband before their country had done them justice, and lose their consequence as a body, they, and their services might be forgotten.

Designing persons increased their discontent, by insinuating that their cause was not advocated with sufficient zeal by their commander. On the 10th of March, while the army was laying at New-burg, an anonymous paper was circulated, which embodied, in the most glowing language, the deep feelings of many hearts. The discontents of the army exploded, and murmurs

Disturbance a-
mong the offi-
cers of the army.

rose to threats and open invective. This paper proposed a meeting of the officers, on the ensuing day. Washington, aware of the feelings of the army, had not availed himself of the suspension of hostilities, to seek the pleasures of home, but had remained in the camp. He now saw that the dreaded crisis had arrived. Intent on guiding deliberations which he could not suppress, he called his officers to a meeting somewhat later than the one appointed in the anonymous appeal, to which, in his orders, he alluded with disapprobation. In the interim, he prepared a written address. The officers met. The father of his country rose, to read the manuscript which he held in his hand. Not being able to distinguish its characters, he took off his spectacles to wipe them with his handkerchief. "My eyes," said he, "have grown dim in the service of my country, but I never doubted her justice." This was a preface, worthy of the paper which he read. He alluded, in the most touching manner, to the sufferings and services of the army, in which he too had borne his share. He treated with becoming severity, the proposition, made in the anonymous paper, to seek, by unlawful means, the redress of their injuries. He assured them that congress, though slow in their deliberations, were favourable to the interests of the army ; and he conjured them not to tarnish the renown of their brilliant deeds, by an irreparable act of rashness and folly ; and finally, he pledged them his utmost exertions to assist in procuring from congress the just reward of their meritorious services.

The officers listened to the voice which they had so long been accustomed to respect and obey ; and the storm of passion was hushed. His pledge of using his influence with congress, in behalf of the army, was performed in a manner which showed how deeply he had their cause at heart. "If," said he, in a letter to that body, "the whole army have not merited whatever a grateful people can bestow, then I have been beguiled by prejudice, and built opinion on the basis of error. If this country should not, in the event, perform every thing which has been requested in the late memorial to congress, then will my belief become vain, and the hope that has been excited, void of foundation. And if, (as has been suggested, for the purpose of inflaming their passions,) the officers of the army are to be the only sufferers by this revolution ; if retiring from the field, they are to grow old in poverty, wretchedness, and contempt ; if they are to wade through the vile mire of dependency, and owe the miserable remnant of that life to charity, which has hitherto been spent in honour ; then shall I have learned what ingratitude is ; then shall I have realized a tale which will embitter every moment of my future life."*

* This letter, and the conduct of the commander-in-chief at this period, could not, we think, have been present to the mind of Thomas Moore, when he advanced the sentiment, that nature, in forming Washington, mingled the materials for a hero, but before she

Moved by the remonstrances of Washington, and alarmed lest the danger they had so narrowly escaped, should return, congress made every exertion in their power to do justice to the officers. They commuted the half pay which had been pledged to them, for a sum equal to five years' full pay.

The army, now satisfied, was disbanded without tumult, in November, 1783. They mingled with their fellow citizens, ever through future years to be honoured for belonging to that patriotic band. It is now nearly fifty years since its existence, and here and there a silver-headed veteran is seen among us, of whom it is said, "they were revolutionary soldiers." It is the pass-word to honour. At all patriotic meetings, the first place is assigned them; and a grateful country has at length provided for their wants, by liberal pensions.

Nov. 3.
American army
disbanded.

America soon had the gratification of seeing her independence, which she had so bravely won, acknowledged by most of the European powers. Holland was the only nation, except France, which had acknowledged its independence, previous to its recognition by Great Britain, in 1782. Her example was followed by Sweden, on the 5th of February, 1783; by Denmark, on the 25th of February; by Spain, on the 24th of March; and by Russia, in July. Treaties of amity and commerce were also, about the same periods, concluded with each of these powers. Prussia did not come to this measure until 1785.

On the 25th of November, the British troops evacuated New-York, and a detachment from the American army entered it.

Nov. 25.
Evacuation of
New-York.

On the 4th of December, the separation of Washington from his officers took place at New-York. The long and eventful period which they had passed together; the dangers they had mutually shared; the reflection that they parted to meet no more; and, above all, the thought that they might never again behold the face of their beloved commander, filled their hearts, and the hardy veterans wept.

Parting of the
officers.

From New-York, Washington hastened to Annapolis, where congress was then in session. He immediately waited on them for the purpose of resigning his commission. A public audience was appointed for that purpose, on the 23d of December, when, in the presence of a large and deeply affected

Resignation of
Washington.

moulded them, unfortunately suffered the mixture to get cold. True, Washington was cold to the unhallowed fires which glowed in the bosom of that licentious poet; and through his pen, have laid waste the morals of society. He was cold, too, to the wild ambition which has more resently led the "hero" of Europe to shed the blood of millions; but in the cause of his army, his country, and of mankind, he was warm as benevolence itself.

audience, he resigned his offices, and commended his country to the protection of God. He retired to Mount Vernon, followed by the benedictions of America, and the admiration of the world.

SECTION XX.

1784.

State of the
American
finances.

AT the close of the war, the United States, although they had burst the bonds of European thralldom, were in a most deplorable condition. A heavy debt encumbered the government; and a similar burden rested upon almost every corporation within it. Trade and manufactures had decayed during the war, and many of the inhabitants were now nearly destitute of clothing, and the necessaries of life. Immediately after the peace was announced, the British sent over an immense quantity of cloths, of an inferior quality, which were sold at a most exorbitant price; and thus almost all the money of the country was collected and carried abroad. The nation being in debt, and destitute of the means of payment, heavy taxes were necessarily imposed. This increased the discontent, which already prevailed among the people, to an alarming degree. The state governments resorted to various measures for the relief of their citizens. In Rhode Island, the government issued a quantity of paper money, redeemable at a future day; this measure, however, only involved them in all the difficulties which the general government had experienced from the same cause;—depreciation of their bills, and loss of public credit.

In Massachusetts, a law was passed, for making real and per-

1786.

Rebellion in
Massachusetts.

sonal estate a tender in the discharge of executions and actions commenced at law. Other laws were also passed, considered oppressive; one for collecting former taxes, not paid in certain specified articles; and another, for rendering processes of law less expensive. The distress which prevailed in the country at length produced insurrections. In August, nearly fifteen hundred insurgents assembled under arms at Northampton, and took possession of the court house. Their object was to prevent the sittings of the court of common pleas, and, of course, the issuing of executions, under these obnoxious laws. The governor issued a proclamation, calling on the citizens to suppress such treasonable proceedings; but his proclamation was utterly disregarded. In the next month, a scene similar to that at Northampton, was acted at Worcester. A body of men, exceeding three hundred, assembled, and compelled the court there sitting, to adjourn.

Nor was Massachusetts the only state where a disposition to insurgency manifested itself. In New Hampshire, a large body of malcontents assembled at Exeter, where the general assembly of the state was convened, and surrounding the house where they were in session, held them prisoners for several hours; but the citizens appearing in arms against them, the insurrection was soon crushed.

Rebellion in N.
Hampshire.

The leader of the malcontents in Massachusetts, was Daniel Shays. At the head of three hundred men, he marched into Springfield, where the supreme judicial court was sitting, and took possession of the court house. He then appointed a committee, who waited on the court with an order, couched in the humble form of a petition, requesting them not to proceed to business; and both parties retired.

The number of insurgents increased; the posture of affairs became alarming; and an army of 4,000 men was at length ordered out for their dispersion. This force was placed under the command of Gen. Lincoln. His first measure was to march to Worcester; and he afforded such protection to the court at that place, that it resumed and executed the judicial functions. Orders were given to Gen. Shepard to collect a sufficient force to secure the arsenal at Springfield. Accordingly, he raised about 900 men, which were reinforced by 300 militia, from the county of Hampshire. At the head of his force, he marched as directed, to Springfield.

1787.

On the 25th of January, Shays approached, at the head of 1,100 men. Shepard sent out one of his aids to know the intention of the insurgents, and to warn them of their danger. Their answer was, that they would have the barracks, and they proceeded to within a few hundred yards of the arsenal. They were then informed, that the militia were posted there, by order of the governor; and that they would be fired upon, if they approached nearer. They continued to advance, when Gen. Shepard ordered his men to fire, but to direct their fire over their heads; even this did not intimidate them, or retard their movements. The artillery was then levelled against the centre column; three men were killed, one wounded, and the whole body thrown into confusion. Shays attempted in vain to rally them. They made a precipitate retreat to Ludlow, about ten miles from Springfield, and soon after to Petersham; but General Lincoln pursuing them, they finally dispersed. Some of the fugitives retired to their homes; but many, and among them their principal officers, took refuge in the states of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New-York.*

Shay's party
dispersed.

* I have heard it asserted, by men who lived in those times, that many who joined Shay's party, hardly knew for what; but, pinched and pressed by the hardness of the times, they became fretful and uneasy, and felt as if they must do something. It is said, that one of

Commissioners were appointed by the government of Massachusetts, empowered to promise pardon, on certain conditions, to all concerned in the rebellion. Several hundreds received the benefit of the commission. Fourteen only were sentenced to death, and these were afterwards pardoned.

Defects in the
American form
of government.

A proposal was, this year, made to amend the articles of confederation. The present frame of government, although it had served, during the pressure of danger, to keep the several parts of the nation together, was now found inadequate to providing for the national exigencies. In forming the articles of confederation, great care had been taken to withhold any delegation of power, which might hereafter endanger the liberties of the individual states. Congress had no authority to enforce its ordinances; and now that the pressure of public danger was removed, they were contemned and disregarded. Some of the states had violated treaties which had been formed with foreign nations, and some had refused to adopt a system of impost which had been devised. It became evident that nothing could put a stop to evils of this description, but a more energetic form of government.

In 1783, John Adams, then in Europe, suggested to congress the expediency of strengthening the general government. At the suggestion of Mr. Madison, in the legislature of Virginia, in 1785, a convention of delegates, from five of the middle states, met at Annapolis, in 1786, who came to the conclusion, that nothing short of a thorough reform of the existing government, would be effectual for the welfare of the country.

1786.

Delegates meet
from five states.

Congress approved their proceedings, and passed a resolution, recommending a general convention of delegates, to be holden at Philadelphia.

1787.

Constitution
framed at Phi-
ladelphia.

In May, 1787, the convention met, and, instead of amending the articles of confederation, they proceeded to form a new constitution. Their debates were long and arduous. A momentous political experiment was to be tried, and the destinies of unborn millions hung upon their deliberation. Respecting many articles of the constitution, much difference of opinion existed. In particular, where the strength of the new government came in question, an honest diversity of opinion, in men of equal patriotism, prevailed. On the one hand, it was considered, that, if the government was made too weak, a state of anarchy, and consequent revolution, would ensue; on the other, that if it were made too

Shays' captains harangued his men, previous to the affair at Springfield, to this effect: "My fellow soldiers, we are here to fight for liberty. It may be some of you will want to know what liberty is. Now I take it, that liberty consists in doing all and whatsoever we please, and keeping other people from serving the devil, and doing as they please."

strong, America would lose the blessings of liberty, which she had bled at every pore to obtain, and only make an exchange of foreign, for domestic oppression.

Some of these politicians thought the only safe mode of reasoning was from the experience of the past, and that all speculations not drawn from this source, should be condemned as impracticable, speculative, and visionary. These looked for an example to the constitution of England, as containing the best form of government actually existing. Others believed that, as the circumstances of the times changed, governments should accommodate themselves to the change. That the present state of the world, and the situation of America, had no parallels in history;—and that therefore the track of no former nation could serve as the guide to their voyage : but, like the discoverer of their continent, they must lay their course through the untravelled way, with nothing to guide them but the light of heaven, and their own observation. The happy medium probably lies between the extremes of these two opinions ; and the constitution framed, being a compromise between them, the form of government, which it prescribes, is probably, on that account, more perfect than if either side had wholly prevailed.

Connected with these ideas concerning the greater or less degree of strength proper to give to the new government, was the subject of the consolidation, or strict independence of the states. Those who desired the general government to possess great strength, were charged by their opponents, with wishing so to arrange it, that, in the play of its parts, it would break down, and subject to itself, the state governments. Those, on the other hand, who feared oppression more than anarchy, watched, with a jealous eye, every infringement of state rights. Those in favour of holding the states strongly united, were called, at this time federalists, and their opponents, anti-federalists.

Other points of dispute arose still more dangerous, because they divided parties by geographical lines. The most difficult of these, regarded the representation, in congress, of the slave-holding states. The non-slave holders contended that the number of representatives sent, should only be in proportion to the number of free white inhabitants. This would bring some states, whose whole population was great, upon a level with others, where the number of inhabitants was comparatively small ; and members from these states would not give their consent to such an apportionment. This difficulty, like many others, which perplexed the convention, was compromised ; and the slaves were allowed to be reckoned, in settling the quota of representatives, as equal to three-fifths of an equal number of free white inhabitants.

That these great difficulties were compromised, holds up this convention, as an example to future times, of the triumph of strong pa-

triotism and honest zeal for the public welfare, over party feeling and sectional prejudice. If the time shall ever come, when any American congress, or convention, shall fail to compromise amicably, disputes, which conflicting interests must produce in this extensive republic; then will the day of its degeneracy have arrived, and its downfall be at hand; then will be experienced the triumph of party feeling and sectional interest, over patriotism and public zeal. The finger of history would point with scorn at such a body of men, while she contrasted them with the wise and honest patriots, who framed the constitution which such a convention would have destroyed.

The federal constitution, at the time of its adoption, was far from receiving the entire confidence which it now commands. It made the government too strong to please one party, and too weak to satisfy the other; and while, on the one hand, it was believed, that it would, in its operation, eventually overturn the liberty of America, on the other, it was pronounced to be a "rope of sand," and the date of its dissolution was augured to be near. Now, the constitution of the United States of America, after fifty years of experience, is regarded, by the friends of the rights of man, in both hemispheres, as the palladium of the civil liberty of the world.*

1789. Federal constitution adopted. It was not without a struggle, that the new constitution was adopted. Eleven of the states were, however, early in the year 1789, brought to decide in favour of its ratification. Rhode Island, which had refused to send members to the convention in which it was framed, and North Carolina, refused to accept it.

The first president, under the new constitution, was Washington; upon whom his grateful countrymen were unanimous, in bestowing this high office. The first vice president was that profound and honest statesman, John Adams.

Geographical notices of the country at the Eighth Epoch, or in 1789, the date of the Eighth Map.

Population.

Maine,.....	96,540.
New Hampshire,.....	141,885.
Vermont,.....	85,589.
Massachusetts,.....	373,324.
Rhode Island,.....	64,470.

* See Appendix.

Connecticut,	232,374.
New-York,	314,142.
New Jersey,	169,954.
Pennsylvania,	424,099.
Delaware,	46,310.
Maryland,	319,649.
Virginia,	442,117.
Kentucky,	61,133.
Tennessee,	77,262.
North Carolina,	288,204.
South Carolina,	140,178.
Georgia,	52,886.
Territory south of the Ohio,	31,913.
Territory northwest of Ohio,	15,000.

Principal towns—Had now become so numerous, that the learner is referred to the geographies of the present time, for their names and location.

Exports.—The principal exports from the New England states were provisions, lumber, and pot and pearl ashes. Wheat, the staple commodity of the middle states. Indian corn, tobacco, rice, and cotton, exported from the southern states. The whole amount of exports from the United States this year, amounted to \$16,000,000.

Colleges.—Harvard, Yale, William and Mary's, Columbia, Nassau Hall, Rhode Island College, Dartmouth, the University of Pennsylvania, Washington College in Charlestown, Maryland, Dickinson College in Carlisle, St. John's in Annapolis, Cokesbury College, Franklin College in Lancaster, Penn., and the Roman Catholic College in Georgetown.

Commerce and manufactures.—Manufactories of iron, leather, skins, and paper, were extensively established in various parts of the United States. Woollen cloths were also manufactured in some of the states. Commerce, to a considerable extent was carried on with Europe, and the East and West Indies.

Societies formed.

1779. Massachusetts Charitable Society was incorporated.

1780. The American Society of Arts and Sciences was incorporated.

1783. The Society of Cincinnati, instituted by the officers of the

revolutionary army ; many of whom, like the Roman Cincinnatus, had left their plough to deliver their country, and afterwards returned to their homes.

1784. The Boston Episcopal Charitable Society incorporated.

1785. The Agricultural Society of Philadelphia, the Humane Society of Massachusetts, and the Association of Manufacturers and Tradesmen in Boston, were formed.

1786. The Connecticut Society of Arts was instituted. The Scotch Charitable Society, and the Massachusetts Congregational Charitable Society incorporated.

1788. The Moravian Society, for the propagation of the gospel among the heathen, was incorporated by the government of Pennsylvania.

Year in which they died. *Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period, extending from 1776 to 1789.*

1776. CADWALLADER COLDEN, an eminent physician, botanist, and astronomer—author of a “History of the Five Nations of Indians.”

JOHN MORTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1777. JOHN BARTRAM, a celebrated botanist, who published a “Description of East Florida,” and Observations on the inhabitants, climate, soil, &c., made in his travels from Pennsylvania to Onondago.

BUTTON GWINETT, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1778. NICHOLAS BIDDLE, captain in the navy of the United States.

PHILIP LIVINGSTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1779. FRANCIS BERNARD, governor of Massachusetts.

THOMAS LYNCH, jun., one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

JOHN WINTHROP, L. L. D., F. R. S. a distinguished philosopher and astronomer.

JOHN HART, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

ELEAZER WHEELLOCK, first president of Dartmouth college.

1780. THOMAS HUTCHINSON, governor of Massachusetts—author of a “History of Massachusetts.”

RICHARD STOCKTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence. 1781.

CHARLES LEE, major-general in the American army. 1782.

ROBERT MONCKTON, governor of New-York.

SAMUEL COOPER, D. D., an eminent divine. 1783.

JAMES OTIS, a distinguished patriot and statesman; author of a "Dissertation on Letters," and the "Power of Harmony in poetic and prosaic composition."

ANTHONY BENEZET, a distinguished philanthropist. 1784.

JONATHAN TRUMBULL, a distinguished patriot, and governor of Connecticut. 1785.

WILLIAM WHIPPLE, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

STEPHEN HOPKINS, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

NATHANIEL GREENE, a major-general in the American army. 1786.

CHARLES CHAUNCEY, D. D., a divine eminent for his learning and piety—publications numerous, chiefly theological. 1787.

THOMAS GAGE, the last governor appointed by the king.

THOMAS STONE, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

ARTHUR MIDDLETON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

THOMAS CUSHING, L. L. D., a distinguished patriot. 1788.

PART IX.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Adoption of the } **EIGHTH EPOCH**, 1789. { Federal Constitution.

TO THE

Purchase of } **NINTH EPOCH**, 1803. { Louisiana.



SECTION I.

THE 4th of March, 1789, was the day upon which the new government was to commence its operations. But from necessary delays, the inauguration of the president did not take place until the 30th of April.

Washington
elected presi-
dent.

Washington, since his resignation, had busied himself in the peaceful and respectable pursuits of agriculture; and he was upon his farm, when the official intelligence of his appointment, to be the head of the nation, was announced to him. He signified his willingness to comply; and proceeded, without delay, to New-York, where congress first convened. In his progress, he was met by numerous bodies of the people, who hailed him as the father of his country; and triumphal arches were erected, to commemorate his achievements. He approached New-York by sea, attended by a deputation from congress, and was received by the governor, as he landed, amidst the firing of artillery, and the acclamations of the people.

1789.

April 30.

Is inaugurated
at New-York.

The ceremony of his inauguration was witnessed, with inexpressible joy, by a great multitude of spectators. The novelty and the importance of the transaction, the benign dignity of Washington's character and manners, the remembrance of the sufferings, by which America had won the

right to govern itself, and which, with a father's anxious solicitude, he had shared ; all conspired to make the pageant inexpressibly solemn and affecting.

In an address to both houses of congress, he modestly declared his incapacity for "the weighty and untried cares before him," and offered his "fervent supplications to that Almighty Being, whose providential aid can supply every human defect, that his benediction would consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States a government instituted by themselves for essential purposes ; and would enable every instrument, employed in its administration, to execute with success the functions allotted to his charge." He remarked, that "the foundation of our national policy should be laid in the pure principles of private morality ; and that no truth was more thoroughly established, than that there exists an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness ; between duty and advantage ; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous policy, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity." An attention to these considerations, he enforced by the weighty reasons, "that the success of the republican form of government is justly considered, as deeply, perhaps finally, staked on the experiment entrusted to the American people ; and that the propitious smiles of heaven could never be expected on a nation, that disregarded the eternal rules of order and right, which heaven itself had ordained."

Congress made it their first object to establish a revenue sufficient, for the support of government, and for the discharge of the debt, contracted during the revolutionary war. For this purpose, they laid duties on the importation of merchandise, and on the tonnage of vessels ; thus drawing into the public treasury, funds which had before been collected and appropriated by individual states. To counteract the commercial regulations of foreign nations, and encourage American shipping, higher tonnage duties were imposed on foreign, than on American vessels, and ten per cent. less duty on goods imported in vessels owned by Americans, than in those belonging to foreigners.

Congress establish a system of revenue.

To aid the president in the discharge of his high and arduous duties, it became necessary to provide suitable assistants in the secret departments of foreign, or state affairs, of war, and of the treasury. The heads of these departments were to be called *secretaries*, and to receive a salary of three thousand five hundred dollars. Those who were first appointed to fill these offices, were, Thomas Jefferson, secretary of state ; Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury ; and Gen. Knox, secretary of war. These officers had the direction of their several departments, subject, however, to the inspection and control of the president, to whom they

Departments are regulated.

were, whenever required, to make report in writing. The appointment of these officers was, by the constitution, made by the president and senate ; the power to nominate, resting solely with the president ; and that of confirming, or rejecting the nomination, with the senate. A dispute arose in congress, on this question, provided they did not efficiently co-operate with him, or faithfully perform their duties, should the president alone have power to remove these assistants, or must the senate concur in the removal ? After much debate, a majority of both houses decided, that the president might remove the heads of departments, at his pleasure.

Constitution
amended.

During this session, a proposition was made to amend the constitution. Congress, after a long and animated discussion of the subject, agreed upon twelve new articles, which were submitted to the respective state legislatures ; and being approved by three-fourths of these bodies, they became a part of that instrument.

A national judi-
ciary establish-
ed.

It was during this session also, that the important work of establishing a national judiciary, was accomplished. This judiciary was to take cognizance of all cases, occurring under the constitution and laws of the United States ; of all disputes, arising with foreigners, and between the inhabitants of different states. It was to consist of a supreme court, circuit and district courts. Of these, the district court, which was to consist of one judge for each district, or state, was considered the lowest ; and causes were appealed from this to the circuit court, which was to consist of one of the five associate judges of the supreme court, and the district judge of the state in which the court was held. Causes were appealable from this tribunal to the supreme court, which was to consist of a chief justice, and five associate judges ; and was to hold two sessions, annually, at the seat of government. John Jay was appointed chief justice ; and Edward Randolph, attorney-general.

Salaries fixed.

The salary of the president was fixed at twenty-five thousand dollars a year, and that of the vice president at five thousand. The representatives received six dollars per day, and six dollars for every twenty miles' travel ; the senate seven dollars per day, and the same for travel. The chief justice of the supreme court was allowed four thousand dollars, and the associate judges three thousand five hundred per annum.

Public thanks-
giving.

Before their adjournment, congress, with becoming piety, requested the president to recommend to the people a day of public prayer and thanksgiving ; in which they should unitedly acknowledge, "with grateful hearts, the many and signal favours of Almighty God, especially by affording them an oppor-

tunity peaceably to establish a constitution of government for their safety and happiness."

On the 29th of September, the first session of congress closed; the secretary of the treasury being previously directed, by a resolution of the house of representatives, to prepare a plan for providing for the adequate support of the public credit, and to report the same at the next meeting of congress.

After the adjournment of congress, the president made a tour through New England, where he was received by the inhabitants with demonstrations of the most filial affection. They crowded around him. They vied with each other in the display of hospitable attentions. Parents brought their children, that they might view in him the living model of excellence, and that they might have, in after life, the satisfaction of reflecting that they had, with their own eyes, beheld the man whom the history of their country ranked as the first of her citizens.

President visits
New England.

In November, North Carolina acceded to the new constitution.

The second session of the first congress began on the 6th of January, 1790. Mr. Hamilton early complied with the directions given him at the close of the former session, and brought forward his celebrated report, which was drawn up with a masterly hand. He showed the importance of public credit, and proposed, as the means of supporting that of the United States, a system of assuming or funding, not only the public debt, amounting to fifty-four millions of dollars, but also the state debts, estimated at twenty-five millions; and of making permanent provision for the payment of the interest, by imposing taxes on certain articles of luxury, and on spirits distilled within the United States. The debates on this report produced an irritation of feeling, which, in the event, shook the foundation of the government, and may fairly be said, to be the origin of that division of sentiment and feeling, which agitated so long and so violently the national councils; and which gave rise to the two great political parties that, under the names of federalists and republicans, for thirty years arrayed one part of the American community against the other. There were two grand points of difference in the opinions of the opposing parties. That concerning the assumption of the state debts, by the general government, which was last debated, caused the most serious division of sentiment; the northern members, who were mostly federalists, advocated the measure; while the majority of the southern members, who belonged to the other party, opposed it.

1790.

Mr. Hamilton's
report on fund-
ing the national
debt.

The other point of difference was, whether in the case of funding the domestic debt, there should be any discrimination between the present holders of public securities, and those to whom the debt was originally

due. The federalists, who looked to the secretary of the treasury as the head of their party, were, with him, in favour of making no difference between the present and the original holder of the continental bills, chiefly on the ground that government ought not to interfere in transfers while the republican party vainly advocated the discrimination; contending, that it was unjust that the veterans of the revolution, who had been obliged to receive this paper in lieu of gold and silver, and were afterwards compelled to part with it at perhaps one seventh of its nominal value, should now be condemned to poverty, while the speculator was receiving the reward of their blood and services.

After much debate, Mr. Madison proposed, that the present holder of assignable paper should receive the highest price such paper had borne in market, and the original holder receive the residue. These propositions were finally rejected; the friends of the secretary contending, that they could not be carried into effect, so as to prevent the results apprehended, as many of the original certificates were issued to persons, who, in fact, had no interest in them, as they were for the benefit of others, to whom it was understood they were to be transferred.

The subject of assuming the state debts, recalled former subjects of animosity, and brought forward new matter of dissension. Mr. Hamilton was suspected of monarchical views. Having been in a situation to observe the evils arising from a want of power in the continental congress, he had, in the convention for framing the constitution, been an advocate for strength in the general government, and was at the time accused of wishing so to arrange it, that in its operation, it would break down, and subject to itself, the state governments. Those whose suspicions were thus excited, now believed that the funding system, in its essential features, especially as regarded the assumption of the state debts, was a part of the same plan; contending, that its design was to strengthen the general government, by making the state creditors, and other capitalists, dependent upon it; and thus engaging the great monied interest of the country to defend its measures, whether right or wrong.

Those in favour of the assumption, contended, that the debts incurred by the states were not for their own benefit, but for the promotion of the common cause; and that, therefore, it was right the whole nation should be responsible. The debts of the states most active in the war were greatest; those of Massachusetts and Carolina amounting to ten millions and a half, while those of all the other states were not more than fifteen millions. Should each state be left to provide for the payment of its own debts, these states must, in some way, lay unusual burdens upon their inhabitants; thus obliging them a second time to be the greatest sufferers in the common cause. On taking the

vote in the house of representatives, the plans of the secretary were rejected by a majority of two.

In the mean time, disputes had taken place with respect to the temporary, as well as the permanent seat of government. It was understood that should it be fixed for ten years at Philadelphia, and afterwards at a place to be selected on the Potomac, that some of the members of the house of representatives, from the Potomac, would withdraw their opposition to Mr. Hamilton. This was accordingly done, and his plans were adopted. The debt funded amounted to a little more than seventy-five millions of dollars, upon a part of which an interest of three per cent. was paid, and on the remainder, six per cent.

After much dispute, Mr. Hamilton's plans are adopted.

In May, 1790, Rhode Island acceded to the new constitution ; thus completing the union of the Thirteen United States, under one government.

Soon after the commencement of the third session of congress, a bill was introduced for laying the taxes which the secretary had proposed for the payment of the interest on the assumed debt of the states. That for laying duties on distilled spirits, was urged on the ground, that the inhabitants beyond the Alleghany mountains, where no other spirits were consumed, would not otherwise bear an equal burden with those on the sea coast, who consumed most of the articles on which an impost duty was laid. The bill, after much debate, was carried.

Duties are laid on American distilled spirits.

On the seventh of August, a treaty was concluded between the United States and the Creek Indians ; thus putting a period to the fears of a Creek war, which had, for several years, agitated the people of Georgia.

Treaty with the Creeks.

During the third session of congress, an act was passed, accepting the cession of the claims of North Carolina to a district, west of that state, and a territorial government was established by congress, under the title of "The Territory of the United States, south of the Ohio."

This year also Kentucky was erected into an independent government, receiving its name from its principal river.

A national bank was, during this session, recommended by the secretary. It met with a violent opposition from the republican party. They considered all banking institutions as useless, the present bill defective, and the power of establishing a bank not granted to congress. The supporters of the bill considered it as constitutional ; and a national bank not only useful, but necessary for the operations of government. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Randolph opposed, while Mr. Hamilton and Gen. Knox sanctioned the bill. After deliberate investigation, the president was con-

1791.

A national bank established.

vinced of its constitutionality and utility, and gave it his signature. The bank was established at Philadelphia, with a capital of ten millions of dollars.

Party dissensions throughout the country, and in the cabinet.

The dissensions on the subject of the funding and banking systems, thus originating in the heart of the republic, spread themselves to its extremities, and every where were the signal for the people to range themselves in parties. The secretary of state was active and determined in his opposition to the measures of Mr. Hamilton. He doubtless believed them prejudicial to the interests of his country; but it appears problematical, whether, as a member of the cabinet, it was right for him to spread through the country, a spirit of disaffection* to measures taken by another member of the same cabinet, acting in the legitimate exercise of his proper functions. As an individual patriot, Mr. Jefferson would certainly have been correct in persuading his countrymen to oppose what he believed would tend to subvert their liberties; but it would seem that, by the resignation of his office, he should have become merely an actor in an individual capacity, before he took any measures of hostility against Mr. Hamilton. As it was, the venerable Washington had the unhappiness to witness his two principal secretaries, both men of vast abilities, in determined hostility to each other, and the mortification to find his affectionate remonstrances and exhortations, ineffectual to their reconciliation.

Vermont admitted to the Union.

New-York having relinquished its claims to jurisdiction in Vermont, this state adopted the federal constitution; and, on the application of its principal citizens, was this year admitted into the Union.

In 1791, the first census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, was completed. They amounted to 3,921,326. The revenue amounted to 4,771,000 dollars, the exports to 19,000,000, and the imports to about 20,000,000.

In October, the second congress commenced its first session. One of its first acts was that of apportioning the number of representatives according to the census. After much disagreement a bill passed fixing the ratio at one for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants.

* Mr. Jefferson, it is said, patronized a paper which vilified the conduct and measures of the secretary of the treasury. Of this, Marshall gives the following notice:—"Other papers enlisted themselves under the banners of the opposition. Conspicuous among these, was the National Gazette, a paper edited by a clerk in the department of state. The avowed purpose for which the secretary patronized this paper, was to present to the eye of the American people, European intelligence derived from the Leyden Gazette, instead of the English papers; but it soon became the vehicle of calumny against the funding and banking systems; against the duty on home spirits, which was denominated an excise, and against the men who had proposed and supported those measures."

SECTION II.

WHILE congress was agitated by party strife and conflicting interests, an Indian war was opening in the northwestern frontiers of the states. Pacific arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes in Ohio, but without effect. On their failure, Gen. Harmer was sent with a force amounting to 1,400 men to reduce to terms. He was successful in destroying their villages, and the produce of their fields; but in an engagement near Chilicothe he was defeated with considerable loss.

1790.

Sept. 30.

Harmer defeated by the Indians.

Upon the failure of Gen. Harmer, Major-Gen. St. Clair, governor of the northwest territory, was appointed to succeed him. He hastened to protect, with his army, the unfortunate inhabitants, who were now left without defence, to suffer all the midnight horrors of Indian warfare. With a force amounting to nearly 2,000 men, St. Clair marched into the wilderness in the month of October of the following year. On the 3d of November, he encamped within a few miles of the Miami villages, with his army, which was reduced, by desertion and detachment, to fourteen hundred. Here he intended to remain until reinforced. Notwithstanding the many melancholy examples of similar disasters in the armies of his country, St. Clair suffered himself to be surprised. The troops which were posted in front, were driven in great disorder upon the regulars. In vain did St. Clair at-

1791.

Nov. 4.

St. Clair surprised and defeated by the Indians.

tempt to rally the flying militia, and repulse the savages. They appeared on all sides of the American army, and poured in such a deadly fire from the surrounding thickets, as strewed the field with the wounded, the dying, and the dead. After a contest of three hours, Gen. St. Clair, disabled by indisposition, from performing the active duties of commander, ordered a retreat, which was effected; and the remnant of his army was saved from total ruin. The victorious Indians pursued closely about four miles, when they returned to share the spoils of the camp. Gen. St. Clair retreated to fort Jefferson, and afterwards to fort Washington. In this disastrous battle, the numbers engaged on each side were nearly equal. The loss of the Indians is not known, but that of the Americans was 630 killed and missing, and 260 wounded; a slaughter almost unparalleled. The whole American camp and artillery fell into the hands of the enemy.

On receiving information of this disaster, congress resolved to prosecute the war with increased vigour; to augment the army by enlistment, and to put the frontiers in a state of

1792.

defence. In pursuance of the resolutions of congress, Washington endeavoured to put on foot an army sufficient for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians ; but the defeats of Harmer and St. Clair produced such a dread of the Indians, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them. There was a violent clamour against the war ; and the president deemed it advisable to make another effort at negotiation with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Col. Harden and Major Trueman, who were both murdered by the savages.

Kentucky was this year admitted to the Union.

Soon after the opening of the next session of congress, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment, but it did not prevail.

In 1792, a mint was established by congress, and the division and value of the money, to be used throughout the country, regulated by statute.

1793.

Washington inaugurated president.

Gen. Washington was again elected president, and in March, 1793, was inaugurated. Mr. Adams was also re-elected vice president.

The president, intent on terminating the war with the Indians, had obtained the intervention of the Six Nations. Through their friendly agency, a treaty of peace had been negotiated with the Indians on the Wabash ; and the Miamis had consented to a conference the ensuing spring.

About this time, the French revolution, which had commenced in 1789, began seriously to affect the politics of the United States. A new government was at first established in France, which had for its fundamental principle, the universal equality of man. Hopes were entertained, that France would now enjoy the blessings of a free government ; but the leaders of the revolution were selfish and unprincipled men, and their sanguinary measures soon blasted these hopes. Louis XVI. was executed, his family murdered or imprisoned, and all who were suspected as being hostile to their views, particularly the nobility, suffered decapitation by the guillotine.

Effect of the French revolution on the U. S.

The parties which had agitated the Union were now raging with increased violence. The democratic or republican party, viewing France, as in the same situation with America, when contending for her rights against the tyranny of Great Britain, beheld with pleasure the downfall of kings, and the dissemination of their own principles ; and though they disapproved the ferocity and cruelty of the rival parties, yet they trusted that good order would eventually be restored, and a republic of the most perfect kind established. The federalists, regarding their country as connected with Britain by identity of origin, the various ties of commercial interest, by resemblance of institutions, and by similarity of language,

literature, and religion ; shocked with the crimes of the French rulers, and alarmed at the system of disorganization which they had introduced, were led to doubt whether, amidst such a state of things, a republican form of government could permanently be maintained. They charged the republican party with espousing the cause of France, and thus fostering a spirit of disorganization. Their public prints teemed with the most terrific visions of the future condition of the country, should the republican party gain the ascendancy. Law, religion, and good order, they foretold, would all be subverted ; the churches sacrilegiously demolished, and the written word of God committed to the flames. The republican prints retorted with equal asperity, charging their political opponents with hostility to republican institutions, and mean subserviency to the policy of Great Britain.

In April, 1793, information was received of the declaration of war by France against Great Britain and Holland. Washington was an American, and he did not choose to involve his country in the contests of Europe.

April 22.
Washington issues a proclamation of neutrality.

He accordingly, with the unanimous advice of his cabinet, issued a proclamation of neutrality. This measure contributed, in a great degree, to the prosperity of America. Its adoption was the more honourable to the president, as the general sympathy was in favour of the sister republic, against whom it was said, Great Britain had commenced a war for the sole purpose of imposing upon her a monarchical form of government ; but he preferred the welfare of his country to the breath of popular applause.

The French minister, who had been appointed by the king, was about this time recalled ; and in April, Mr. Genet, who was appointed by the republic, arrived in Charleston, S. C. The flattering reception he met with, induced him to believe, that he could easily persuade the American people to embark in the cause of France, whatever might be the determination of government. This opinion of his was

The French minister arrives, and creates disturbance in America.

followed by the presumptuous procedure of fitting out privateers from the port of Charleston, to cruise against the vessels of the enemies of France, nations, however, at peace with the United States. Nor was this the only act of sovereignty which he attempted. He projected hostile expeditions against Florida, from South Carolina and Georgia ; and against New Orleans and Louisiana, from the state of Kentucky. These expeditions were put in a train of execution, and were not finally relinquished until disavowed by the minister who succeeded him.

Notwithstanding these illegal assumptions of power, he was welcomed at Philadelphia by the most extravagant marks of joy. Mr. Hammond, the British minister, complained of these proceedings. The cabinet unanimously disapproved of them, and determined to enforce the laws

against those citizens who had committed the offence. Genet accused the executive of acting in opposition to the wishes of the people, and even threatened an appeal from the government to the people. This threat turned many against him, who had before been his advocates, and rendered the cause of France less popular in America. When congress met in December, the proclamation of neutrality was approved, as well as the conduct of the administration towards Mr. Genet. France, at the request of the president, annulled his powers, and he was succeeded by Mr. Fauchet, who arrived in the United States, February, 1794.

1794.
Mr. Jefferson re-
signs his office.

On the 1st of January, 1794, Mr. Jefferson resigned his office of secretary of state, and was succeeded by Mr. Randolph. The office of attorney-general was filled by Mr. William Bradford.

SECTION III.

THE duties which had been laid by congress on distilled spirits, created great dissatisfaction. In the western counties of Pennsylvania, it soon assumed the appearance of a regular progressive system of resistance. Combinations were formed to prevent the operation of the laws, by exciting the resentment of the people against those concerned in their execution; and for this purpose, in 1791, a general meeting of the malcontents was held at Pittsburg, and correspondences established among them, in order to give union to their measures. This state of things called for the most vigorous measures on the part of government. Officers of inspection were appointed, and a proclamation issued by the president, exhorting and admonishing all persons to desist from any combinations to prevent the execution of the laws.

1794.
Insurrection in
Pennsylvania,
on account of
the duties on dis-
tilled spirits.

These measures did not check the progress of insurrection; and the insurgents now proceeded to the most violent outrages. The marshal of the state, while serving processes against offenders, was seized by a body of armed men, and afterwards compelled to enter into an engagement to refrain from executing the duties of his office. The inspector, apprehensive of danger, after applying in vain for protection from the civil authority, procured a small number of soldiers, to guard his house. It was attacked by five hundred of the insurgents, who, by setting fire to the surrounding buildings, compelled those within to surrender themselves, and deliver up the papers of the inspector.

Both this officer, and the marshal, were obliged to withdraw from the seat of the insurrection. The avowed motives of these, and many other outrages, were to compel the resignation of the officers concerned in the collection of the offensive duties, and by opposing, with force, the authority of the United States, to procure a repeal of the laws, imposing these duties, and also a change in the measures of the government. The force of the insurgents was calculated at 7,000 men.

Washington, having vainly attempted persuasive measures, now found himself compelled to resort to force. A requisition was made on the governors of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, for fifteen hundred militia, who were placed under the command of Gov. Lee, of Virginia. This powerful force had the intended effect; inspiring such salutary terror, that no farther opposition was attempted. Several of the most active leaders were detained for legal prosecution, but afterwards pardoned; as were also two who were tried and convicted of treason. In the management of this difficult affair, the energy and wisdom of Washington were again conspicuous, at once awing the disaffected by force, and soothing them by lenity.

At this session of congress, an act was passed to raise a naval force, consisting of six frigates, for the purpose of protecting the American commerce against Algerine corsairs. Eleven merchant vessels, and upwards of one hundred citizens, had been captured by these corsairs; and further preparations, it was understood, were making for a renewed attack upon the unprotected commerce of the United States.

A war with Great Britain was, at this time, apprehended. Since the peace of 1783, mutual complaints were made by the United States and Great Britain, for violating the stipulations contained in the treaty. The former were accused of preventing the loyalists from regaining possession of their estates, and British subjects from recovering debts, contracted before the commencement of hostilities. The Americans complained, that certain military posts, situated in the western wilderness, within the limits of the United States, were still retained; that the Indians were incited to make incursions upon the frontier settlements; and that injurious commercial restrictions had been imposed. By these restrictions, American vessels, trading to the ports of France, might be seized by English cruisers, carried into England, and there condemned.

Unpleasant state
of relations with
Great Britain.

In this situation of affairs, congress assembled. A bill passed, laying an embargo for thirty days, one for erecting fortifications, one for raising a provisional army, and another for organizing the militia. To avert, however, if possible, the calamity of another war, Mr. Jay was sent to England, for the purpose of negotiating with the British government.

Gen. St. Clair, after his defeat in 1791, resigned his command, and

was succeeded by Gen. Wayne. The Indians of Ohio, still continuing hostile, and the attempt to negotiate with them, the preceding year, having failed, he marched into their country, and encamped for the winter, at Greenville. He also occupied the ground where the battle had been fought in 1791; and there erected fort Recovery. Early in August, he reached the confluence of the Au Glaize and Miami rivers, about thirty miles from a British post, where the whole strength of the enemy, which was estimated at 2,000 men, was collected. His own force amounted to three thousand. After sending several messengers, with the vain endeavour of negotiating a peace, on the 15th of August, he proceeded against them, and found them advantageously posted, behind the British fort. On the morning of the 20th, the Americans

Aug. 20.
 General Wayne
 defeats the In-
 dians.

advanced in columns, and, at the first charge, broke the enemy's lines. The Indians retreated, and for two hours were pursued at the point of the bayonet. Numbers of them were killed; and subsequently their whole country was laid waste, and forts erected upon the ruins of their settlements. This decisive victory disposed the Indians to peace, and had a salutary effect on all the tribes, northwest of the Ohio, and also upon the Six Nations.

1795.
 Change of secre-
 taries.

January 1st, Mr. Hamilton resigned his office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, from Connecticut. At the close of this session, Gen. Knox also resigned his office of secretary of war, and was succeeded by Timothy Pickering.

1794.
 Jay's treaty with
 Great Britain.

Mr. Jay, having negotiated a treaty with Great Britain, November 19, 1794, returned to America in the spring of 1795. This treaty, having been laid before the senate, was, after considerable debate, ratified by that body. It provided that the posts, which the British had retained, should be given up to the Americans, and compensation made for illegal captures; and that the American government should pay to the British, £600,000, in trust for the subjects of Great Britain to whom American citizens were indebted. But it did not prohibit the right of searching merchant vessels, claimed by the British; and was thus an abandonment of the favourite principle of the Americans, that "free ships make free goods." While the senate were debating the subject with closed doors, a member had given an incorrect copy of it to a printer. It was circulated with rapidity, and produced much irritation. The president received addresses from every part of the Union, praying him to withhold his signature; but Washington, believing the treaty to be the best which, under existing circumstances, could be obtained, signed it, in defiance of popular clamour. At the next session of congress, an attempt was made, by the republican party, to hinder the treaty from going i to

effect, by refusing to vote for the necessary supplies of money. After a long debate, in which several members, particularly Fisher Ames, of Massachusetts, displayed much eloquence, and the parties generally, much heat and irritation, the appropriation was carried by a majority of three, and the treaty went into effect. The republican party, although, in general, confiding in their beloved president, considered that his sanction to this instrument was a proof that his judgment partook in some small degree of human fallibility. They believed the peace which it purchased, while the odious right of search was granted to England, would be short-lived and inglorious. Washington probably thought it was better than war; and that should war ultimately arise from the insulting and injurious exercise of that power, it were better deferred, until the state had gained the strength and vigour of a few more years' consolidation.

A treaty was also made this season with Algiers; the commerce of the Mediterranean was opened, and the American captives were restored. A treaty was also concluded with the Indians in the west; thus securing the frontiers from savage invasion.

1795.

Treaty with
Algiers.With the In-
dians.

Oct. 27.

Treaty with
Spain.

A treaty with Spain soon after followed. That power had endeavoured to cause the western boundary of the new republic to be fixed three hundred miles east of the Mississippi. She denied the inhabitants beyond the Alleghany mountains, access to the ocean through that river, the mouth of which was in her province of Louisiana. To adjust these differences, Thomas Pinkney was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of Madrid. In October, a treaty was signed, allowing the claims of the republic, as to the western boundary; securing to the United States free navigation of the Mississippi to the ocean, and the privilege of landing and depositing cargoes at New Orleans.

In 1796, Tennessee was admitted to the Union.

1796.

The treaties of the last year met with no opposition in congress. The conduct of France still continued to be a source of disquiet to the American Republic. Mr. Fauchet, ardently attached to his nation, and believing himself supported by a numerous party in America, gradually assumed an authoritative manner. He accused the administration of partiality to their former foes, enmity to their friends, and cold indifference to the cause of liberty. Mr. Morris, who had been sent minister to France, failing to secure the confidence of those in power, was, at their request, recalled, in 1794.

Mr. Monroe succeeded him. This gentleman possessed the ardour for liberty and the rights of man, common to the republican party; and, with them, hoped that the French revolution would eventually lead to the establishment of a free government.

Mr. Monroe sent
to France.

in the room of the ancient despotism of that country. He was received in the most flattering manner by the convention, who decreed that the flags of the two republics, entwined, should be suspended in the legislative hall, as a symbol of their friendship and union.

Mr. Adet soon after succeeded Mr. Fauchet, and brought with him the colours of France, which, with much ceremony, were deposited with those archives of the United States, which are at once the memorials of their freedom and independence, and an honourable testimony of the existing sympathies and affections of the sister republics.

Notwithstanding the professions of friendship between the governments, France still wished to involve America in her European wars; but finding her maintaining a steady system of neutrality, she adopted measures highly injurious to American commerce. Her cruisers were allowed, in certain cases, to capture vessels of the United States; and while prosecuting a lawful trade, many hundreds were taken and confiscated.

Mr. Monroe recalled, and Mr. Pinkney sent out. Mr. Monroe, at this time, was suspected, by the president, of not asserting and vindicating the rights of the nation with proper energy. These suspicions were attributed, by the republican party, to the false insinuations of his political opponents. Washington, however, recalled him, and appointed Charles C. Pinkney, of South Carolina, in his stead.

As the period for a new election of the president of the United States approached, Gen. Washington publicly signified his determination to retire to the shades of private life. On this occasion he received addresses from various quarters of the Union, which, while they deplored the loss of his great public services, contained many subjects of congratulation. He was reminded that during the short period of his administration, the property of the country had increased beyond example. In regard to foreign affairs, he had witnessed the peaceful termination of all disputes with other nations, excepting France; while with respect to domestic, he had beheld the restoration of public credit, and provision of ample security for the ultimate payment of the public debt. The prosperity of American commerce had exceeded the most sanguine expectations, tonnage having nearly doubled; the productions of the soil had found a ready market; the exports had increased from nineteen millions to more than fifty-six millions of dollars; the imports in about the same proportion; and the amount of revenue, from import duties, had exceeded all calculation.

Washington's farewell address. In 1796, the father of his country published his farewell address to the people of America. In the most earnest and affectionate manner he called upon them to cherish an immovable attachment to the national union, to watch for

its preservation with jealous anxiety, to discountenance even the suggestion that it could, in any event, be abandoned; and “indignantly frown upon the first dawnings of an attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest.” Overgrown military establishments he represented as particularly hostile to republican liberty. While he recommended the most implicit obedience to the acts of the established government, and reprobated all obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatsoever plausible character, with the real design to direct, to control, counteract, or awe the general deliberations and actions of the constituted authorities;—he wished also to guard against the spirit of innovation upon the principles of the constitution. Aware that the energy of the system might be enfeebled by alterations, he thought no change should be made without an evident necessity; and that in so extensive a country, as much vigour as is consistent with liberty, is indispensable. On the other hand, he pointed out the dangers of real despotism, by breaking down the partitions between the several departments of government, by destroying the reciprocal checks, and consolidating the different powers. Against the spirit of party, so particularly baneful in an elective government, he uttered his solemn remonstrances as well as against inveterate antipathies, or passionate attachments, in respect to foreign nations. While he thought that the jealousy of a free people ought to be constantly awake, against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, he wished that good faith and equal justice should be observed towards all nations, and peace and harmony cultivated. In his opinion, honesty, no less in public than in private affairs, is the best policy. Other subjects, to which he alluded, were the importance of credit, of economy, of a reduction of the public debt, and of literary institutions; above all, he recommended religion and morality as indispensably necessary to political prosperity. “In vain,” says he, “would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who would labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens.”*

* See Appendix.

SECTION IV.

To fill the station which Washington had so eminently dignified, the two great political parties presented their leaders. The federalists, claiming to be the sole adherents of the policy of Washington, and charging the opposite party with being under French influence, and having inbibed French principles, zealously endeavoured to elect John Adams. The republicans, setting themselves up as the exclusive friends of liberty, and accusing their opponents with undue attachment to Britain and its institutions, exerted their influence for Jefferson.

1797.

Mr. Adams elected president.

In February, 1797, the votes for president and vice president were opened. Mr. Adams had the majority of suffrages for president, and Mr. Jefferson for vice president, for the four succeeding years.

Congress apprehend a war with France.

Immediately on succeeding to the presidency, Mr. Adams received intelligence of an open indignity on the part of the French directors towards the United States.

They had refused to accept Mr. Pinkney in exchange for Mr. Monroe, and declared their determination not to receive another minister, until the United States had complied with their demands. Mr. Pinkney further communicated to the president, that he had received a written mandate, directing him to quit France. Congress was immediately convened, and the despatches containing this intelligence, submitted to their consideration. They passed laws increasing the navy, augmenting the revenue, and authorizing the president to detach, at his discretion, eighty thousand men from the militia. To prevent war, however, and manifest his sincere desire of peace, Mr. Adams appointed three envoys extraordinary to the French republic, Gen. Pinkney, then at Amsterdam, whither he had retired on leaving France, Mr. Marshall, and Mr. Gerry. These, also, the directory refused to receive; but an indirect intercourse was held with them, through the medium of unofficial persons, who were instructed by Mr. Talleyrand, the minister of foreign relations, to make them proposals. These persons demanded, before any negotiation could be opened with the directory, that a considerable amount of money should be given to Talleyrand. This insulting proposal was indignantly rejected. It was, however, repeated,

X Y & Z mission.

and letters were received upon the subject, signed X Y & Z. Hence this has been called the X Y & Z mission. The envoys at length succeeded in putting an

end to such a degrading intercourse. After spending several months at Paris, Mr. Marshall and Mr. Pinkney were ordered to leave France, while Mr. Gerry was permitted to remain, and repeatedly importuned

singly to enter into a negotiation. This he declined, and was soon after recalled by his government. This treatment of the envoys induced Mr. Adams to declare, "that he would make no further overtures, until assured that his envoys would be received in a manner suited to the dignity of a great and independent nation."

These events were followed by such depredations, committed by the citizens of France on American commerce, as excited general indignation throughout the United States. Civil discord appeared extinct; and this was the general motto;—"Millions for defence, not a cent for tribute." The treaty of alliance with France was considered by congress as no longer in force; and further measures were adopted by congress, for retaliation and defence. A regular provisional army was established, taxes were raised, and additional internal duties laid. Gen. Washington, at the call of congress, left his peaceful abode, to command the armies of the United States, while Gen. Hamilton was made second in command. The navy was increased, and reprisals were made on the water. At sea, the French frigate *L'Insurgente*, of forty guns, was captured, after a desperate action, by the frigate *Constellation*, of thirty-eight guns, commanded by Com. Truxton. The same officer compelled another frigate of fifty guns to strike her colours; but she afterwards escaped in the night.

1798.

Feb. 10.

The French frigate *L'Insurgente* captured.

On hearing of these vigorous preparations, the French government indirectly made overtures for a renewal of the negotiations. Mr. Adams promptly met these overtures, and appointed Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the United States, Patrick Henry, late governor of Virginia, and William Van Murray, minister at the Hague, envoys to Paris, for concluding an honourable peace. They found the directory overthrown, and the government in the hands of Napoleon Buonaparte, who had not partaken of the transactions which had embroiled the two countries. With him negotiations were opened, which terminated in an amicable adjustment of all disputes, by a treaty, concluded at Paris, on the 30th of September. The provisional army was soon after disbanded by order of congress.

1800.

Sept. 30.

Treaty with France.

America was now called to mourn for the death of Washington. He calmly and peacefully expired at Mount Vernon, after an illness of twenty-four hours.

1799.

Death of Washington.

The newspaper, in its blackened columns announced to the people, "the Father of his Country is no more!" The bells of the nation tolled forth his requiem, and one general burst of grief broke from the filial hearts of the American people. Clad in black, they assembled in their churches, to hear his funeral praises from the orator, and from the minister of God. The poet wrote his elegy, and the choir

sung the solemn and pathetic dirge. The government mourned, as was becoming, with more of the parade of grief, but with an equal share of its sincerity. The senate addressed a letter to the president, expressing, in dignified but pathetic language, their deep sense of the magnitude of their common loss, and of the resignation with which it became them to bow before the bereaving stroke of "Him who maketh darkness his pavilion." The house of representatives resolved that the speaker's chair should be shrouded in black; that the members should be clad in the vestments of sorrow, and that a joint committee of both houses should be appointed, to devise the most proper manner of paying honour to the memory of "the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." The committee reported a plan of funeral honours, by which Washington was mourned by the whole government, with a solemn and august pageantry.

Washington died on the 14th of December, 1799, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. His history is the history of his country, during the period of his public services. Commanding her armies, and presiding in her councils, during the most interesting period of her existence, her history can never be delineated, but he must stand the most prominent figure on the foreground. What may be said of many of the worthies of the revolution, may be eminently said of him. In no instance has he rendered his country a more important service, than in leaving to her future sons his great and good example.

Other heroes have been praised for their love of glory. The true, distinguishing praise of Washington is, that he was above the love of glory. In no instance, did he rashly adventure the cause confided to his care, lest he should suffer in his personal reputation. To assert that, in no case, did he commit an inadvertent error, or manifest the most trifling frailty, would be giving him that praise which belongs not to man; but, judging from the general tenor of his conduct, we shall be justified in pronouncing, that his was the soul which was above all other approbation, and all other fear, but that of God.

His mortal remains repose at Mount Vernon, near the scene of his domestic enjoyments. To that spot will every true son of America, in all future ages, be attracted, in mournful, filial pilgrimage; and thither, from every clime, will the votary of the rights of man repair, to renew his vow of devotion, and to draw fresh inspiration in the sacred cause.

SECTION V.

DURING the year 1800, the seat of government, agreeably to the law, passed by congress, in 1790, was transferred from Philadelphia to the city of Washington. A territory, ten miles square, in which the permanent seat of government was located, had been ceded to the general government, by the states of Virginia and Maryland; and received the name of "District of Columbia." It was situated on both sides of the Potomac, a few miles from Mount Vernon. Public buildings had been erected; and, in November of this year, congress, for the first time, held their session in that place.

1800.

Seat of government is transferred to Washington.

Mississippi territory was, this year, formed into a district government, and a part of the Northwest Territory erected into a separate government, called "Indiana Territory."

Mississippi and Indiana.

The time had now arrived for electing a president. It was about this period, that the feuds and animosities of the federal and republican parties were at their greatest height. When Mr. Adams was first made the opposing candidate to Mr. Jefferson, he was, by no means, obnoxious to the great body of the republican party, who voted against him. They recognised in him a patriot of the revolution, and they liked him well, although they liked Mr. Jefferson better. It was Mr. Hamilton, not Mr. Adams, who was the chief object of party aversion; and although a clamour was raised, to serve party purposes, accusing Mr. Adams of being too much in favour of the British form of government, yet the real cause of dissatisfaction was, that he was supported by those, who, they were persuaded, had monarchical views. After the lapse of four years, when Mr. Adams was again to be a candidate for the presidency, he was opposed with far more bitterness.

Review of Mr. Adams's administration.

In some of his measures he had been unfortunate, and the vigilant spirit of party was awake, to make the most of the real, or supposed errors of the nominal head of their opponents. In the early part of his administration, the acts, by which the army and navy were strengthened, and eighty thousand of the militia subjected to his order, were represented, by the republicans, as proofs that, however he might have been a friend to the constitution of his country, he now either wished to subvert it, or was led blindfold into the views of those who did. The republicans scrupled the policy of a war with France, and denied the necessity, even in case of such a war, of a great land force against an enemy, totally unassailable, except by water. They believed that

spirits were at work to produce this war, or to make the most of the prospect of a disturbance, in order to lull the people, while they raised an army, which they intended as the instrument of subverting the republican, and establishing a monarchical government.

The president was stung by the clamours of the opposition, who imputed to him intentions which he never had. Attributing the evil to French emissaries, and moreover ascribing to too much liberty, the horrible excesses of the French revolution, he gave his signature to two acts, which were considered by the body of the people as dangerous to, if not subversive of the constitutional liberty of America. One of these, called the Alien Law, authorized the president to order any alien, whom he should judge dangerous to the peace and liberty of the country, to depart from the United States, on pain of imprisonment. The other, called the Sedition Law, had, for its avowed object, to punish the abuse of speech, and of the press; and imposed a heavy fine, and imprisonment for years, upon such as should "combine, or conspire together to oppose any measure of the government;" and upon such as should "write, print, utter, publish, &c. any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States, or either house of the congress of the United States, or the president, &c." Under the sedition law, several persons were actually imprisoned. The sympathies of the people were awakened in their behalf, and their indignation was aroused against those, by whose means they were confined. These were the principal causes why Mr. Adams was, at this period, unpopular, and that the federal party, as appeared by the election, had become the minority.

Immediately preceding his retirement from office, Mr. Adams appointed, in pursuance of a law made by congress, twelve new judges. These were called his midnight judiciary, from the alleged fact that they were appointed at twelve o'clock on the last night of his presidential authority.

From the constitution, as it existed at that period, each elector voted for two men, without designating which was to be president; and he who was found to have the greatest number of votes, was to be president; and the second on the list, vice president. An unlooked for case

1801.

Mr. Jefferson & Mr. Burr receive an equal number of votes.

now occurred. The republican electors, who had a very considerable majority over the federal, gave their votes, to a man, for Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr; intending, that Jefferson, the leader of the party, should be president, and Burr, vice president. These two men had an equal number of votes; the election must, according to the constitution, be decided by the house of representatives. The federal party, having been defeated themselves, considered that they might

still defeat their opponents ; and probably, believing that they might find a grateful friend in Col. Burr, while they knew that they had nothing to expect from Mr. Jefferson, they determined, if possible, to raise him to the presidential chair. On counting the votes in the house of representatives, another singular event occurred ; Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr had an equal number of votes. Again and again the voting went round, and the votes remained the same : until the time had nearly arrived when, by the constitution, the president must be elected, or otherwise, the machine of government would be run down ; and the constitution contained no machinery by which it could be wound up. At length, after the members had voted thirty-five times, it was found on the thirty-sixth balloting, that Mr. Jefferson had a majority of one state.

This transaction must go down to posterity as a dark passage in the American history. Whether or not the republicans would have continued to vote until the constitution was destroyed, rather than yield to their opponents a short lived triumph, and take for four years as president, the man themselves had selected as vice president, can never be known ; but if such had been the fact, posterity would have had cause to execrate their memories. Had such a catastrophe ensued, still less would America have had occasion of gratitude to the other party. The republicans might allege, that they voted in obedience to the will of the people ; but no one pretended, that any freeman, in voting for an elector, or any elector in voting for Mr. Burr, expected or wished that he should be president.

On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson was inaugurated. On his accession to office, he departed from the example of his predecessors, and, instead of a speech, delivered to the two houses of congress in person, he sent to them a written message, which was first read by the senate and then transmitted to the house of representatives. The practice has been followed and sanctioned by his successors. The message of Mr. Jefferson was worthy of the writer of the declaration of independence. It will be preserved among the most precious relics of the wisdom of our fathers ; and, like the farewell address of Washington, will serve, according as the future course of America may be, for a light to guide her in the way to happiness and glory, or to discover the shame of her degradation.

March 4.
Inauguration of
Mr. Jefferson.

The principal offices of the government were now transferred to the republican party. Mr. Madison was appointed to the department of state.

A bill was passed by congress, in accordance with the recommendation of the president, reorganizing the judiciary department, by means of which the twelve judges, appointed during the last days of Mr.

Adams' administration, were deprived of their offices. Another bill was passed, enlarging the rights of naturalization.

Second census.

Exports and revenue.

A second census of the United States was also completed ; giving a population of 5,319,762, an increase of one million four hundred thousand in ten years. In the same time, the exports increased from nineteen to ninety-four millions, and the revenue, from 4,771,000 to 12,945,000 dollars. This rapid advance in the career of prosperity, is unparalleled in the history of nations ; and it is to be attributed to the industrious and enterprising habits of the people, and their excellent laws and political institutions.

During this year, congress declared war against Tripoli.

1802.
Ohio admitted
to the Union.

In 1802, Ohio was admitted as an independent state into the Union. The territory of this state was originally claimed by Virginia and Connecticut, and was ceded by them to the United States, at different times, after the year 1781. From this extensive and fertile tract of country slavery was entirely excluded.

Difficulties with
the Spanish go-
vernment.

In 1802, the port of New Orleans was closed against the United States. The king of Spain having ceded Louisiana to the French, the Spanish intendant was commanded to make arrangements to deliver the country to the French commissioners. In consequence of this order, the intendant announced that the citizens of the United States could no longer be permitted to deposit their merchandise and effects in the port of New Orleans. By this prohibition, the western states were in danger of suffering the ruin of their commerce, and great agitation was excited in the public mind. In congress, a proposition was made to take the whole country by force ; but reposing just confidence in the good faith of the government whose officers had committed the wrong, that body caused friendly and reasonable representations of the grievances sustained, to be made to the court of Spain, and the right of deposit was restored.

Aware of the danger to which the United States would be perpetually exposed, while Louisiana remained in the possession of a foreign power, propositions had been made for procuring it by purchase. This

1803.
Louisiana pur-
chased.

was a subject of much discussion and feeling. But, by a treaty concluded at Paris, in 1803, Louisiana, comprising all that immense region of country, extending from the Mississippi to the Pacific ocean, was acquired by the United States, as well as the free and exclusive navigation of the river. The sum of fifteen millions of dollars was the price of these newly acquired rights. The minority were opposed to a ratification of the treaty, contending, that the sum was exorbitantly large, and that the

navigation of the river could have been secured without such heavy pecuniary sacrifices. Mr. Jefferson, and the majority of congress viewed the subject in a very different light. They considered, that, compared with the importance of the object attained, the purchase money was trifling ; that the prosperity of all the western states was dependent on the free and uninterrupted navigation of the waters of the Mississippi, and a safe depot at New Orleans ; that by this treaty our western frontier would be protected and preserved from collisions with a foreign power, and that such was the happy organization of the American government, that it was fully adequate for the security and protection of its territories, however extensive they might be.

LOCATION OF INDIAN TRIBES.

Of the many Indian tribes mentioned in the introductory chapter as having been found inhabiting the eastern coast of America, most have been exterminated, or driven westward. The following sketch, chiefly taken from Dr. Morse's Indian Report, made in 1820-21,* contains a brief account of those which remain, with their locations.

Maine.—The St. John's Indians are mingled with about two hundred French families, twenty-five miles west of the dividing line between Maine and New Brunswick. The Passamaquoddies have a small portion of excellent land on Schodic river, five miles north of Eastport, and are between three and four hundred in number. The Penobscots are on Penobscot river, 12 miles above Bangor.

Massachusetts.—The Indians remaining in Massachusetts, reside at Marshpee, Sandwich, Troy, and Martha's Vineyard, from 50 to 100 miles southeast from Boston, and number between 7 and 800.

Rhode Island.—The Narragansetts, about 400 in number, are about 40 miles southwest of Providence. A part of this tribe emigrated, some years ago, to Oneida, and Brotherton, N. Y.

Connecticut.—The Mohegans now possess a reservation on Thames river, between New London and Norwich. A part of this nation also removed to Brotherton. There are a few families of Indians at Groton and Stonington.

New-York, &c.—The formidable confederacy of the Six Nations is now almost destroyed. The Mohawks removed to Canada in 1776. About fifty of them remain in the United States, and are settled on Sandusky river, Ohio. The Cayugas followed the Mohawks, and have now no distinct reservation in the United States. About forty of them are mingled with the Senecas. The Senecas and Onondagas have reservations on Alleghany river ; the Senecas, with a few Delawares, at Cattaragus and Tonnewanta ; Cayugas and Onondagas at Buffaloe ;

* Let it be remembered, that this account, in some instances, goes forward in point of time, of that portion of the History of the American Republic, which is in this work, to follow.

Senecas, and a few other tribes on Genessee river. A few Senecas reside on Sandusky river, Ohio.

The Stockbridge Indians removed to the state of New-York, and with the Mohegans and Narragansett, or Brotherton Indians, have been adopted into the confederacy of the Six Nations, and reside on lands originally belonging to the Oneidas, near the head of Oneida lake.

In 1821, the Six Nations purchased a tract of land, 20 by 40 miles, on Fox river.

In 1818, the Delawares ceded all their lands in Indiana to the United States. A part of them removed to White river, Arkansas, and the remainder will probably unite with the Six Nations in their new settlement. A small number of them have resided in Ohio, on a branch of the Sandusky, between fifty and sixty years.

The first settlement of the Wyandots within the territory of the United States, was at Detroit, from whence they removed and settled near Mackinaw. Engaging in war with the Indians in that vicinity, they divided themselves; one party going north, but the most numerous returning to Detroit, and thence extending around the southern shore of lake Erie as far as Sandusky bay, where a few scattered and feeble settlements now remain.

The principal settlements of the Ottawas are in eleven villages on the east side of lake Michigan. They have also reservations along the Au Glaize and Miami rivers, in Ohio.

The Shawnees, or Shawanese, have resided in Ohio about sixty-five years. Their reservations are near the head waters of the Great Miami and Au Glaize rivers. A part of the tribe have removed west of the Mississippi, and reside near St. Louis and Cape Girardeau.

The Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws, retain the former situations, but with less extended limits. Within a few years they have exchanged large portions of their ancient territories for lands west of the Mississippi. Large bodies of these nations have emigrated thither, and are now establishing themselves in that section of the country.

The Seminoles reside in Florida, and have been located by the government of the United States, near and about Espiritu Santo, or Hillsborough bay.

Louisiana, at the time it was purchased by the United States, was principally inhabited by Indians. To have introduced accounts of these, in the introductory chapter, would have occasioned confusion, as these more western tribes had no connection with the early history of America, and have been chiefly formed from the fragments of other nations. As our acquaintance with the great extent of country, west of the lakes and the Mississippi, increases, it is considered important that more should be known of the Indian tribes who inhabit it; and as their names

will occur in the history of the war with England in 1812, it seems proper to introduce here some account of them.

The **SIoux**, or **Naudowessies**, are the most powerful Indian nation of North America. They inhabit the country between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, from latitude 46° , to their junction in latitude 39° ; also, south of the Missouri, and east of the Mississippi, to the territories of the Chippeways, Winnebagoes, and Menominees. This nation consists of seven independent bands, united in a confederacy, for the protection of their territories. In the immense extent of country, occupied by the Sioux, are a few bands of Fox, Sacs, and Kickapoo Indians.

The **CHIPPEWAYS** are another powerful nation, and have long maintained a war with the Sioux. They are scattered from Detroit to the sources of the Mississippi, though they have not, in any considerable number, permanently located themselves.

The **Pottawattamies** are supposed to have emigrated from the north of the lakes to their present location, which is in villages, extending from Chicago, along the southern shore of lake Michigan, and in the northern part of Indiana. The Pottawattamies speak the same language with the Ottawas and Chippeways, and are similar in their manners and customs. These three nations are united by compact, and call the Delawares their grandfather.

The **FOX INDIANS** are settled on both sides of the Mississippi, between the Ouisconsin and Rock rivers; their principal village is about seventy-five miles below Prairie du Chien. The Fox Indians have a tradition, that they came from near Kingston, Upper Canada; from whence they were driven to Michillimackinack, and to the bank of the river which bears their name. Here they were defeated by the French and Menominees, and driven to the Mississippi.

The **SACS**, or **SANKS**, were originally the same nation as the Fox Indians. They separated from them about a century since, but are now mingled with them in the same territory, and reside with them in a large village, near the foot of Rock Island.

The **Kickapoos** formerly inhabited the centre of Illinois. But they have ceded their lands to the United States, and are about to remove beyond the Mississippi, on lands west of the Great and Little Osages. The Fox Indians, the Sanks, and Kickapoos are similar in their language, manners, and customs.

The **WINNEBAGOES** appear to be of a different race from the neighbouring tribes. They possess the country, from the entrance of the lake which bears their name, extending southwest through the Rock river country to the Mississippi.

The **MENOMINEES** live in ten villages, north of Winnebago lake and Fox river, and west of Green bay, as far as the Menominee river on

the northeast. A few are scattered on the west shore of lake Michigan and on the Mississippi.

The adjoining territories, on the west, are possessed by the Menominees, in common with the Sioux, Chippeways, Winnebagoes, and Sacs. The MIAMI, at the commencement of the last century, lived at the foot of lake Michigan. They have moved farther south; and their settlements are now near the sources of the river Wabash, one of the forks of that river; the other, at Mississineway.

The *Peorias*, *Kaskaskias*, and *Cahokias* are said to speak the Miami language, and are supposed to be branches of that nation. They once inhabited the greater part of Indiana and Illinois; but only a few of them remain, as they have ceded their lands to the United States, and removed west of the Mississippi. They were, however, mostly destroyed in a war with the Sanks and Foxes.

Within the territory between the Missouri on the north, the Red River on the south, the Mississippi on the east, and the Rocky Mountains on the west, many of the tribes, who resided east of the Mississippi, have planted, or are planting themselves. Of the Indian tribes within these limits, with whom the United States have intercourse, the PAWNEES, are the most powerful. This tribe is divided into three bands; the Grand Pawnees, the Pawnee Republics, and Pawnee Loups, all residing on La Platte river and its branches.

The GREAT OSAGES live on Osage river, and on the Necocho, or Grand river, a branch of the Arkansas.

The LITTLE OSAGES live on the Necocho river, and hunt in common with the Great Osages, sometimes on the head waters of the Kansas. The O'Mahas are on Elkhorn river, eighty miles northwest of Council Bluffs.

The KANSAS reside about three hundred miles up the Kansas river, in one village. They hunt through all the country watered by this river.

The IOWAYS are a divided tribe. About half of them have joined the Ottoes and Missouries, who live in one village, on the southeast side of La Platte river. The other part of the tribe remains in two villages, on the Des Moines and Ioway rivers.

The QUAPAWS, in 1818, ceded to the United States, 30,690,560 acres of land between the Arkansas and Red Rivers. Their present country extends from the Arkansas to Washita river, between Arkansas and Little Rock.

Geographical notices of the country at the Ninth Epoch, or in 1803

Population.

Maine,.....	150,896
New Hampshire,.....	183,858
Vermont,.....	154,397.
Massachusetts,.....	422,630
Rhode Island,.....	69,122.
Connecticut,.....	251,002.
New-York,.....	586,050.
New Jersey,.....	211,149.
Pennsylvania,.....	602,545.
Delaware,.....	64,273.
Ohio,.....	76,000.

Indiana Territory had now become settled, and the number of its inhabitants was,..... 4,875.

Michigan,.....	3,206.
Maryland,.....	349,692.
Virginia,.....	534,396 whites, and 345,796 blacks
Kentucky,.....	220,959 “ 138,296 “
Tennessee,.....	92,018 “ 13,584 “
South Carolina,....	345,591 “ 59,699 “
Mississippi Territory,	8,850.
Louisiana,.....	42,375.

Washington, in the District of Columbia, now made the capital of the United States, contained but 4,354 inhabitants. For the principal towns, see geographies of the present day.

Colleges.—Harvard, Yale, William and Mary’s, Columbia, Nassau Hall, Rhode Island College, the University of Pennsylvania, Washington College in Chestertown, Maryland, Dickinson College, in Carlisle, (Pa.) St. John’s in Annapolis, (Md.) Cokesbury College, Franklin College in Lancaster, (Pa.) Roman Catholic College in Georgetown, University of North Carolina, Burlington College, (Vt.) Williams College in Williamstown, (Mass.) Union College at Schenectady, Grenville College at Tennessee, Beaufort and Winnsborough Colleges in South Carolina, Bowdoin College in the District of Maine, the Transylvania University at Lexington, (Ky.) and Middlebury College, (Vt.)

Societies formed.

- 1790. The Connecticut Society for the abolition of slavery.
- The Middlesex Medical Society, (Mass.)

1791. The society for the promotion of Agriculture, Arts, and Sciences, at New-York.
1792. The Massachusetts Agricultural Society.
1793. The Marine Society of South Carolina.
1794. The Massachusetts Historical Society, and the Boston Library Society.
- A society for the promotion of Christian knowledge, at New-York.
- A Medical society in Vermont.
1796. The New-York Missionary Society.
1799. The East India Marine Society of Salem.
- The Missionary Society of Massachusetts.
- The North Carolina Medical Society.
1801. The Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences.
1802. The Massachusetts Baptist Missionary Society.
1803. The Massachusetts Society for the promotion of Christian knowledge.

Year in which
they died.

*Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period,
extending from 1789 to 1803.*

1789. ETHAN ALLEN, a brigadier-general in the American army.
- JOHN LEDYARD, an enterprising traveller.
- JOHN MORGAN, M. D., F. R. S., a learned physician.
1790. JOSEPH BELLAMY, D. D., a learned divine—author of a treatise, entitled “True Religion Delineated.”
- JAMES BOWDOIN, L. L. D., a distinguished philosopher and statesman, and first president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.
- DAVID BREARLY, distinguished as a lawyer and a statesman.
- BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D., F. R. S., a celebrated philosopher and statesman.
- WILLIAM LIVINGSTON, author of a poem, called “Philosophical Solitude,” “Miscellaneous pieces, in prose and verse,” &c.
- ISRAEL PUTNAM, a major-general in the American army.
1791. LYMAN HALL, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.
- FRANCIS HOPKINSON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

- JOHN WESLEY, the great founder of Methodism. 1791.
- HENRY LAURENS, president of congress, and a distinguished patriot. 1792.
- ARTHUR LEE, M. D., a distinguished statesman.
- JOHN PAUL JONES, a captain in the American navy.
- JOHN HANCOCK, president of congress, and a distinguished patriot. 1793.
- ROGER SHERMAN, a distinguished patriot, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence.
- RICHARD HENRY LEE, president of congress. 1794.
- FREDERIC WILLIAM STEUBEN, major-general in the American revolution.
- JOHN WITHERSPOON, D. D., L. L. D., one of the signers of the declaration of independence, and president of Princeton College.
- JOHN SULLIVAN, L. L. D., major-general of the American army.
- JOSIAH BARTLETT, M. D., one of the signers of the declaration of independence. 1795.
- WILLIAM BRADFORD, attorney-general of the United States.
- EZRA STILES, D. D., president of Yale College.
- FRANCIS MARION, a distinguished officer of the revolution.
- SAMUEL HUNTINGTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence. 1796.
- DAVID RITTENHOUSE, L. L. D., F. R. S., a distinguished philosopher and astronomer.
- ANTHONY WAYNE, major-general in the army of the United States.
- SAMUEL SEABURY, bishop of Connecticut.
- DANIEL MORGAN, brigadier-general in the army of the United States. 1797.
- OLIVER WOLCOTT, L. L. D., one of the signers of the declaration of independence.
- FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.
- JEFFREY AMHERST, a celebrated English general. 1798.
- JEREMY BELKNAP, D. D., eminent as a divine and historian—author of a “History of New Hampshire,” “American Biography,” &c.
- GEORGE READ one of the signers of the declaration of independence.
- PATRICK HENRY, a distinguished patriot and statesman. 1799.

1799. GEORGE WASHINGTON.

1800. THOMAS MIFFLIN, major-general in the army of the United States.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

JOHN RUTLEDGE, a celebrated patriot, governor of South Carolina, and invested by that state with dictatorial powers.

ARTEMAS WARD, first major-general in the American army.

1801. BENEDICT ARNOLD, in the early part of his life, was distinguished for bravery, and was a major-general of the American army ; but afterwards deserted the cause of his country.

JONATHAN EDWARDS, president of Union College, Schenectady, N. Y.

1802. GEORGE RICHARDS MINOT, a historian of Massachusetts—author of a “History of Massachusetts Bay.”

PART X.

COMPRISES THE EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Purchase of } NINTH EPOCH, 1803, { Louisiana.

TO THE

The cession } TENTH EPOCH, 1819. { of Florida.



The History is continued till the year 1826, the

FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.



SECTION I.

IN the meantime, the semi-barbarous nations, which inhabit the southern shores of the Mediterranean, had commenced depredations on the American commerce. Tripoli, in particular, had intimated to the government, that the only method of securing their commerce, was the payment of tribute. This led to a war between Tripoli and the United States.

War with Tripoli.

In prosecution of this war, the United States had, during the year 1801, sent out Com. Dale, with a squadron of two frigates and a sloop of war. By blockading the harbour of Tripoli, he prevented the piratical cruisers from leaving it, and thus afforded protection to the American commerce.

Early in the year 1803, congress, bent on more efficient operations against the barbarian enemy, sent out Com. Preble, with a squadron of seven sail. In October, one of his ships, the frigate Philadelphia, Capt. Bain-

1803.
Frigate Philadelphia captured.

bridge, was sent into the harbour of Tripoli, to reconnoitre ; and while in pursuit of a small vessel, he unfortunately proceeded so far, that the Philadelphia was grounded, and fell into the hands of the enemy. The officers were considered as prisoners, and the crew treated as slaves.

1804.

Decatur recaptures and burns the Philadelphia.

As soon as the news of the capture of the Philadelphia reached the squadron, Stephen Decatur, who held a lieutenancy, under Com. Preble, conceived the design of recapturing, or destroying it. Having obtained the consent of the commodore, he armed a small ketch, the *Intrepid*, and sailed from Syracuse, February, 1804, with seventy-six men. He entered the harbour of Tripoli undiscovered, and advancing boldly, took a station alongside of the frigate, which was moored within gunshot of the bashaw's castle, and of the principal battery. Two of the enemy's cruisers lay within two cables' length, and all the guns of the frigate were mounted and loaded. Decatur sprang on board, and his intrepid crew rushed, sword in hand, upon the astonished and terrified Tripolitans; killed and drove them into the sea, and were soon masters of the frigate. The situation of Decatur and his crew became perilous from the artillery of the battery, which now began to be poured in upon them. The corsairs in the harbour were approaching, and they had no time to lose, in making their escape. They set fire to the Philadelphia, left her, and were soon out of the reach of their pursuers, having accomplished this daring enterprise, without the loss of a single man.

Com. Preble attempts to destroy the fortifications of Tripoli.

In the month of August, Com. Preble went three times into the harbour of Tripoli, and opened the broadsides of his fleet, upon the shipping and the batteries of the city. Although the Americans conducted with great gallantry, and destroyed some of the Tripolitan shipping, yet they failed of making any material impression upon the fortifications. Meantime, the barbarians treated the American prisoners with every degree of indignity and cruelty. Capt. Bainbridge, who, with his crew, had remained in captivity since the capture of the Philadelphia, vainly endeavoured to obtain some mitigation of their sufferings. Their country deeply commiserated their distresses, and congress was ready to listen to any proposition which afforded a reasonable prospect of their relief.

In 1803, Capt. William Eaton, on his return from Tunis, where he had been consul, recommended to the government, his joint operation with an elder and expelled brother of the reigning bashaw of Tripoli. Permission was given him to undertake the enterprise, and such supplies granted as could be afforded, and the co-operation of the fleet recommended. In 1804, Eaton was appointed navy agent of the United States, for the Barbary powers. After reaching Malta, he left the American fleet, and proceeded to Cairo and Alexandria, where he formed a convention with Hamet, who hoped, by attacking the usurper in his dominions, to regain his throne. For this purpose, an army was to be raised in Egypt, where Hamet had been kindly received, and pre-

1805.

The Americans, under Eaton, aid the expelled bashaw of Tripoli.

sented with a military command by the Mamaluke Bey. Early in 1805, Eaton was appointed general of Hamet's forces. From Egypt, he marched with a few hundred troops, principally Arabs, across a desert, one thousand miles in extent, to Derne, a Tripolitan city, on the Mediterranean. In this harbour he found a part of the American fleet, which was destined to assist him. He learned, also, that the usurper, with a considerable force, was within a few days' march of the city. The next morning, he summoned the governor of Derne to surrender, who returned for answer, "My head or yours." He then commenced an assault upon the city, and, after a contest of two hours and a half, took possession. Gen. Eaton was wounded, and his army suffered severely, but immediate exertions were, notwithstanding, made to fortify the city. On the 8th of May it was attacked by the Tripolitan army. Although the assailants were ten times more numerous than Eaton's band, yet, after persisting four hours in the attempt, they were compelled to retire. On the 10th of June, another battle was fought, in which Eaton was again victorious. The next day, the American frigate *Constitution* arrived in the harbour, and the terrified Tripolitans fled precipitately to the desert. While the impression resulting from the bravery displayed at Derne operated at Tripoli, and an attack upon that city was daily expected from the United States' squadron, Colonel Lear, the consul at Tripoli, thought it the best moment to listen to the terms of peace offered by the bashaw. He did so, and it was stipulated, that a mutual delivery of prisoners should take place, among whom were Capt. Bainbridge, with the officers and crew of the *Philadelphia*; and, as the bashaw had a balance of more than 200 prisoners in his favour, he was to receive sixty thousand dollars. It was also understood, that all support from Hamet was to be withdrawn, and hostilities were to cease. It was, however, stipulated, that on Hamet's retiring from the territory, his wife and children, then in the power of the reigning bashaw, should be given up to him. Thus ended the war in the Mediterranean.

June 3.

Peace with Tripoli.

In July, 1804, occurred the death of Gen. Alexander Hamilton. He died in a duel fought with Aaron Burr, vice president of the United States. Col. Burr had addressed a letter to Gen. Hamilton, requiring his denial

1804.

Hamilton killed in a duel with Burr.

or acknowledgment of certain offensive expressions contained in a public journal. Hamilton declining to give either, Col. Burr sent him a challenge. They met, and Hamilton fell at the first fire. His death caused a deep sensation throughout the union. The city of New-York paid extraordinary honours to his remains. Gen. Hamilton was so much the idol of one of the great political parties, and the aversion of the other, and in such opposite terms is his political character deline-

ated, by the writings and men of his time, that impartial history scarcely dares, as yet, to pronounce the estimate of his merits as a politician. As a man of great talents, of powerful eloquence, as a scholar, and as a gentleman, Hamilton stood pre-eminent.

1805. In the meantime, Mr. Jefferson received his second presidential election ; and such was his popularity, that out of 176 votes, he received 162. George Clinton, of New-York, was chosen vice president. They were, according to custom, sworn into office on the 4th of March 1805.

Mr. Jefferson, on entering upon the discharge of the duties of the second term of his administration, although a decided majority in both houses of congress were friendly to the principles of government by which he was actuated, perceived himself to be placed in a more critical situation than at any former period of his public life. The manner in which European wars were conducted, created apprehensions in the minds of the American citizens, that their rights and liberties would not only be endangered, but sacrificed.

The wise policy of America had been eminently conspicuous in maintaining a steady system of neutrality, during the whole of those wars which broke out in consequence of the French revolution. Her neutrality enabled her to profit by the colonial commerce of France and Spain, as also by the whole branch of European trade, which, in consequence of the general war, could not be transported in native ships. France, in the meantime, had become a nation of soldiers. She had repelled her invaders, and placed at the head of her republic a man whose vast mental powers and resources had acquired control over most of the European kingdoms. Buonaparte had made a stand against the maritime tyranny of Britain, while that nation, with equal vigour, resisted his usurpations on land. Each party was intent on repaying blow for blow ; and each was regardless how great a part of the shock might fall on unoffending neutrals, so that any part of it should reach his antagonist. Nor was this all ; each belligerent, resolutely bent that other nations should make common cause, made it understood, that whatever nation should fail of resenting the injuries of his enemy, should be injured by him. Thus was peaceful America stricken, until she aroused in her might, to manifest that she, too, had rights and sensibilities. America, too, had profited by the opportunities of commerce which these nations were squandering away ; and her increasing riches frequently excited the jealousy of the belligerents, particularly of Britain. Hence, on the slightest pretences, her vessels were captured and condemned.

On two subjects Britain and America were at issue. One was respecting what the former power denominated

Jefferson again
elected presi-
dent.

Policy of Ame-
rica during the
wars of the Fr.
revolution.

Disputes be-
tween Great Bri-

“ the right of search ;” * by which, on various pretences, she had so long haughtily assumed, and exercised an authority to search the vessels of other nations. Another subject in dispute was, that of expatriation. England maintained, that a man, once a subject, was always a subject ; and that no act of his could change his allegiance to the government under which he was born. America, with a more liberal policy, held that man was born free ; and if, when he arrived at years of reflection, he preferred some other government to that of his native land, he had a right to withdraw himself, and break the bonds imposed by his birth, when he should deem them to be fetters, and become an integral part of the nation whose government he most approved, and on whose soil he should prefer to dwell. In pursuance of these different principles, America received and adopted as her sons, all who, in compliance with the forms of her laws, sought her hospitable protection. Hence, there were those, who being born in Great Britain, were claimed by that government as her subjects ; while, at the same time, having resided in America, and become naturalized, they were as much regarded as her citizens, as if they had drawn their first breath upon her soil.

This difference in principles on the subjects of the right of search, and that of expatriation, produced the difficulties between the two nations, on the subject of the impressment of American seamen. Officers of British ships, in the exercise of the pretended right of search, entered American vessels, and impressed from thence certain seamen, whom they claimed as British subjects, because they were born in Great Britain ; while the same men, having become naturalized in America, were regarded by this nation as her citizens. The practice of impressment, thus begun, did not end here, but proceeded to extremes that were unjustifiable on any principles. The native citizens of America were wantonly confounded with her adopted ones, by the domineering officers of the British navy ; and a cry was heard throughout the land, of American families, who mourned for their relatives, thus forcibly seized and detained in the worst of bondage.

America, thus harassed, was meditating measures for the defence of her commerce, when she received, from both the belligerents, fresh cause of provocation. Great Britain, under the administration of Charles Fox, issued a proclamation, May, 1806, blockading the coast of the continent, from Elbe to Brest. The French government, exasperated at this measure, retaliated by the decree issued at Berlin, November 21st, declaring the Bri-

tain and Ame-
rica.

1806.

Impressment of
American sea-
men.

French and Eng-
lish decrees.

* See in the campaign of 1780, an account of the “ Armed Neutrality.”

tish Isles, in a state of blockade. Thus each nation declared, in effect, that no neutral should trade with the other.

In 1807, the public attention was again directed to Col. Burr. He had lost the confidence of the republican party, by his supposed intrigues against Mr. Jefferson, for the office of president; and excited the indignation of the whole federal party, by his encounter with Ha-

Suspicious en-
terprise of Col.
Burr.

milton. Thus situated, he had retired as a private citizen into the western states. It was, at length, under-

stood, that he was at the head of a great number of individuals, who were arming and organizing themselves; purchasing and building boats on the Ohio. Their ostensible object was peaceful and agricultural. It was to form a settlement on the banks of the Washita, in Louisiana. Their boats, it was said, were calculated to accommodate families, who were removing to their settlements. But the vigilant eye of government was upon their leader; and, as the nature and designs of his movements were suspected, he was closely scrutinized; prosecutions were instituted against him in Tennessee, Kentucky, and in the Mississippi territory, from which, as proof of guilt was wanting, he was discharged. At length, these suspicions gain-

1807.

Burr is appre-
hended, tried,
and acquitted.

ing strength, he was apprehended on the Tombigbee river, in Mississippi territory, in February, 1807, brought to Richmond, under military escort, and committed, in order to take his trial upon two charges exhibited against

him, on the part of the United States. First, for a high misdemeanor, in setting on foot, within the United States, a military expedition against the king of Spain, with whom the United States were at peace; second, for treason in assembling an armed force, with a design to seize the city of New Orleans, to revolutionize the territory attached to it, and to separate the Atlantic states from the western. It was supposed that he intended to make New Orleans the seat of his dominions, and the capital of his empire. In August, after a trial before Judge Marshall, the chief justice of the United States, sufficient evidence of his guilt not being presented, he was acquitted by the jury.

SECTION II.

1807.

Outrage upon
the Chesapeake.

In June, of this year, an outrage was committed upon the United States' frigate, the Chesapeake, by the British ship of war Leopard, which produced throughout the country a general burst of indignation. The Chesapeake, commanded by Com. Barron, having been ordered on a cruise in the Mediterra-

nean, sailed from Hampton Roads on the 22d of June. She had proceeded but a few leagues from the coast, when she was overtaken by the Leopard. A British officer came on board, with an order from Vice-admiral Berkely, to take from the Chesapeake three men, alleged to be deserters from the Melampus frigate. These men, it appears, were American citizens, who had been impressed by the British, but had deserted, and enlisted in the American service. Com. Barron replied to the British officer in terms of politeness, but refused to have his crew mustered for examination, by any officers but his own. He was unprepared for an attack, not contemplating the possibility of meeting an enemy so near the Capes; but, during this interview, noticing preparations on board the Leopard, indicative of a hostile disposition, he immediately gave orders to prepare for action. But before any efficient preparations could be made the Leopard opened a broadside upon the Chesapeake. After receiving her fire about thirty minutes, during which, the Americans had three men killed, and eighteen wounded, Com. Barron ordered the colours to be struck. An officer from the Leopard came on board, and took four men, the three who had been previously demanded, and another, who, they affirmed, had deserted from a merchant vessel. Com. Barron observed, that he considered the Chesapeake a prize of the Leopard. The officer replied "No," he had obeyed his orders in taking out the men, and had nothing further to do with her. This event produced great excitement. That rancour of party which had so long embittered all the intercourse of social life, was lost in the general desire to avenge a common wrong. The president, by proclamation, commanded all British armed vessels within the harbours or waters of the United States, to depart from the same without delay, and prohibited others from entering. Mr. Monroe, the American minister in London, was instructed to demand reparation; and a special congress was called.

In November Britain issued her orders in council, a measure declared to be in retaliation of the French decree of November, 1806. These orders in council prohibited all neutral nations from trading with France, or her allies, except upon the condition of paying tribute to England. This was immediately followed by a decree of Buonaparte, at Milan, which declared that every vessel which should submit to be searched, or pay tribute to the English, should be confiscated if found within his ports.

Thus was the commerce of America subjected to utter ruin, as almost all her vessels were, on some of these pretences, liable to capture. The American government, after much discussion, resorted to an embargo on their own vessels, as a measure best fitted to the crisis. This would effectually secure the

Nov. 11.
Orders in council issued.

Dec. 17.
Milan decree.

Dec. 22.
Embargo laid.

mercantile property, and the mariners now at home, and also those who were daily arriving ; and at the same time, it would not be a measure of war, or a just cause of hostility.

Mr. Monroe was instructed not only to demand satisfaction for the Chesapeake, but to obtain security against future impressments from American ships. But Mr. Canning, the British minister, objected to uniting these subjects, and Mr. Monroe was not authorized to treat them separately. Mr. Rose was sent envoy-extraordinary to the United States, to adjust the difficulty which had arisen on account of the Chesapeake. In 1808, Com. Barron was tried for prematurely surrendering that frigate, and suspended for five years.

1809. In 1809, Mr. Jefferson's second term of office having expired, he declared his wish to retire from public life, and Mr. Madison, who had during Mr. Jefferson's administration, held the important office of secretary of state, was elected president. Mr. George Clinton of New-York was re-elected vice president.

Although all the citizens of America were indignant at the treatment of their country by the belligerent powers, a diversity of opinion prevailed with regard to the method adopted by government to prevent further aggression. The embargo convulsed the whole nation, and produced the most violent opposition. The commercial states inveighed against it as ruinous ; bringing in its train poverty and distress. Individuals throughout the nation seized opportunities of infringing it, and its restrictions could not be enforced in the eastern states without the

March. aid of a military force. Thus circumstanced, the government repealed the embargo, and substituted another law, prohibiting for one year all intercourse with France or Great Britain. A provision was made in this law, that should either of the hostile nations revoke her edict, so that the neutral commerce of the United States should be no longer violated, the president should immediately make it known by proclamation, and from that time the non-intercourse law should cease to be enforced, as it regarded that nation.

March 23. On pretence of retaliating upon America for submitting to the outrages of England, Buonaparte issued his decree of Rambouillet, which authorized the seizure and confiscation of American vessels which were then in the ports of France, or might afterwards enter, excepting those charged with despatches to the government.

Arrangement with Mr. Erskine. In April, a treaty was concluded with Mr. Erskine, the British minister at Washington, which engaged, on the part of Great Britain, that the orders in council, so far

as they affected the United States, should be withdrawn. The British ministry, however, refused to ratify this treaty; they denied the authority of that minister to make such a treaty, and immediately recalled him. His successor, Mr. Jackson, insinuated, in a correspondence with the secretary of state, that the American government knew that Mr. Erskine was not authorized to make the arrangement. This was distinctly denied by the secretary, but being repeated by Mr. Jackson, the president declined all further intercourse with him.

In May, 1810, the non-intercourse law expired, and 1810.
government made proposals to both the belligerent powers, that, if either would revoke its hostile edicts, this law should only be revived and enforced against the other nation. It had ever been the policy of America, to avoid becoming a party in the European wars, and to regard each belligerent as standing on equal ground. The law was applicable to both, and if it made a distinction in its operation between the belligerents, it must necessarily result from a compliance of one, with an offer made to both, but which would still be open to the acceptance of the other. France repealed French decrees
repealed.
her decrees, and the president issued a proclamation on the 2d of November, in which he declared that all the restrictions imposed by the non-intercourse law should cease in relation to France and her dependencies. Great Britain was now called on to fulfil her engagement, by revoking her orders in council. She refused, on pretence that the revocation of the French decrees had not actually taken effect.

The population of the United States, by the third census of 1810, was 7,239,903.

Among the occurrences produced by British ships hovering on our coasts, was an encounter off Cape Charles, between the American frigate *President*, commanded by Com. Rogers, and the British sloop of war, *Little Belt*, commanded by Capt. Bingham. The attack was commenced by the *Little Belt*, but she was soon disabled, and thirty-two of her men killed and wounded. 1811.
May 16.
Attack on the
U. S. frigate *Pre-
sident*.

Menacing preparations, and the appearance of a combination had been discovered among the Indians on the western frontier, who, watching the hostile feelings existing between the United States and Great Britain, considered this a favourable opportunity for them to commence their depredations. They accordingly collected on the Wabash, and under the influence of a fanatic of the Shawanese tribe, who styled himself a prophet, and of his brother, the famous chief Tecumseh, they committed the usual atrocities of their barbarian warfare. Indians com-
mence hostili-
ties.

Gov. Harrison
sent against
them.

Gov. Harrison, of the Indiana territory, was directed to march against them with a force, consisting of regulars, under the command of Col. Boyd, together with the militia of the territory; and on the 7th of November, he met a number of Indian messengers at Tippecanoe,* their principal town, and a suspension of hostilities was agreed upon until the next day, when an interview was to be had with the prophet and his chiefs. Warned by the fate of so many American armies, surprised and cut off by the savages, Gen. Harrison, aided by the vigilant Boyd, formed his men in

Nov. 7.
Battle of Tippe-
canoe. Indians
defeated.

order of battle; and thus they reposed upon their arms. Just before day, the faithless savages rushed upon the Americans. But their war-whoop was not unexpected. The Americans stood, repelled the shock, and repulsed the assailants. Their loss was, however, severe, being about 180 in killed and wounded. That of the Indians was 170 killed, and 100 wounded.

Reparation
made for the
attack on the
Chesapeake.

Mr. Foster, who succeeded Mr. Jackson, as minister from England, arrived at Washington, during the summer; and the controversy, respecting the Chesapeake and President, was finally adjusted; the British government agreeing to make provision for those seamen who were disabled in the engagement, and for the families of those who were killed. The two surviving sailors, who were taken from the Chesapeake, were to be restored. But no change of policy was exhibited by the British government. Their right to search American vessels, and to impress American seamen, if native-born Britains, was still maintained; and the orders in council were enforced with the greatest rigour. British vessels were, for this purpose, stationed before many of the principal harbours in the United States.

In consequence of the French decrees being annulled, commerce with France had again commenced. American vessels, bound for French ports, and richly laden, were captured by the British. Not less than nine hundred had thus fallen into their hands, since the year 1803.

* On the meeting of Gen. Harrison with the chiefs, occurred a noble flash of aboriginal eloquence. Tecumseh was not present when the council assembled. As he entered, he was told, that his father (meaning Gen. Harrison) had reserved a seat for him next himself. "My father," said Tecumseh, "the Great Spirit is my father—the earth is my mother, and upon her breast will I recline!" and accordingly seated himself on the ground.

In Tecumseh, we find much to remind us of Philip, of Mount Hope. Like Philip, he possessed, in addition to the general characteristics of the American savage, a comprehensive mind, capable of forming and persevering in a great and complicated plan; and, as with Philip, the love of country and the love of right, appear to have been blended in his mind, with the thirst for human blood. The plan of Tecumseh, like that of Philip, was to unite the scattered tribes of his countrymen against the whites; and for this purpose, he visited and stirred up the Indians to war, by his savage and powerful eloquence.

It was evident, that Great Britain now considered the United States as an unwarlike nation, and knowing the commercial spirit of the people, expected that restrictions, equivalent to their own, would be the only method of defence to which the government would resort. Forbearance, under these repeated injuries, was no longer a virtue, and served only to invite further insult and aggression.

When congress assembled in November, the president laid before them the state of foreign relations, and recommended that the United States should be placed in an attitude of defence. The representatives of the people acted in accordance with these views.

Provision was made for the increase of the regular army to 35,000 men, and for the enlargement of the navy. A law was enacted, empowering the president to borrow eleven millions of dollars ; the duties on imported goods were doubled, and taxes were subsequently laid on domestic manufactures, and nearly all descriptions of property.

On the 25th of February, 1812, Mr. Madison laid before congress, copies of certain documents, which proved, that on the 6th of February, 1809, the British government, by its agent, Sir James Craig, governor of Canada, had sent John Henry as an emissary into the United States, for the express purpose of insiduously destroying its government, by effecting, if possible, the disunion of its parts. The service for which Henry was employed, was to intrigue with the leading members of the federal party, draw them into direct communication with the governor of Canada, and lead them, if possible, to form the eastern part of the union into a nation, or province, dependent on Great Britain.

Henry proceeded through Vermont and New Hampshire to Boston, which was his ultimate destination ; but he returned without effecting, in any degree, his purpose. This failure he attributed solely to the readiness which Mr. Madison had manifested to meet the conciliatory propositions of Mr. Erskine, which took from his opponents the power of making him and his administration odious to the people, by representing to them that he was in the interest of France. Henry, having vainly sought from Great Britain, remuneration for this dishonourable service, disclosed the whole transaction to the American government, for which he was paid fifty thousand dollars, out of the contingent fund for foreign intercourse. This treacherous attempt, made by England in time of peace, was regarded with abhorrence, by the virtuous of both parties, and was among the causes which led to the war, which soon ensued.

Preparations
for war.

1812.

Disclosure of
Henry's secret
mission.

SECTION III.

1812.

April.

Embargo laid.

June 18.

War declared
against Great
Britain.

IN April, congress laid an embargo for ninety days upon all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States. Although the government was continually making preparation for war, a hope was yet cherished, that some change of policy would take place in the British cabinet, which would render it unnecessary. But at length, finding no prospect of such a change, on the 18th of June, 1812, an act was passed, declaring war with Great Britain.

In the manifesto of the president, the reasons of the war were stated to be, British excesses, in violating the American flag on the great highway of nations, by the impressment of American seamen;—harassing American vessels as they were entering their harbours, or departing from them, and wantonly spilling American blood, within the limits of her territorial jurisdiction;—issuing orders, by which the ports of the enemies of Great Britain were blockaded, and not supporting these blockades by the adequate application of fleets to render them legal, and enforcing them from the date of their proclamation; in consequence of which American commerce had been plundered on every sea, and her products cut off from their legitimate markets;—and finally, employing secret agents to subvert the government, and dismember the union; and encouraging the Indian tribes to hostility. Against this declaration, the representatives of the federal party, constituting a small minority in congress, entered their solemn protest.

Thus had England, by her haughty and overbearing measures, again compelled America to resort to arms. The circumstances of the country at the commencement of the present war, were, however, far different from those which attended the war of the revolution. A govern-

Condition of
America.

ment had been established, which, unlike the congress of that period, could not only recommend, but enforce.

The number of inhabitants had increased from about three millions to nearly eight millions; and the pecuniary resources of the republic had advanced in a ratio yet greater than that of its population. These were the advantages which America in 1812, possessed over America in 1775; but there were points in which our fathers of the revolution were in a much more advantageous situation for war than that in which their descendants, thirty-seven years afterwards, found themselves placed. In 1775, the Americans were comparatively a warlike people. They had been obliged to be constantly on the

alert, to defend themselves from their savage foes ; and they had just emerged from a contest, which had given practical experience of the difficulties and hardships of war, and consequently, the ability to face its dangers and endure its fatigues. This war had been eminently calculated, both by its misfortunes and successes, to impart sound maxims in the military art. The shameful inertness and disasters of the first campaign of the French war, the energy and brilliant successes of the last ; the disgrace of Braddock, and the glory of Wolfe, were fresh in men's minds ; and it was amidst these scenes that the military character of the leader of the revolutionary army, and that of many of his officers, was formed.

On the contrary, in 1812, a season of thirty years of peace and prosperity had enervated the nation. Most of the officers of the revolution slept in honoured graves. There were, however, a few veterans of that noble band remaining ; but they were not of those who had stood in its foremost rank, and they had already passed the vigour of manhood ; the best energies of which are required for the momentous duties of a high military command. Thus, for the army to be raised in 1812, there were no officers in whom entire confidence could be placed. But with the best of officers, very great difficulties must have been encountered, from the condition of the troops.

During Mr. Jefferson's administration, economy was the order of the day. Every possible retrenchment of national expenditure was adopted ; and among other measures of this nature, was the curtailing of the army and navy. Although a spirit of prudence in money affairs is highly commendable, and though it was at that period popular, and in many respects useful to the country, yet it may now be doubted, whether, in this instance, it did not degenerate into that penny-wisdom and pound-foolishness, which is as little consistent with the best interests of a nation, as with those of an individual. The national debt, it is true, was by these measures reduced from \$75,463,467 to \$36,656,932 ; but by the increased expenditures of the war of 1812, '13, and '14, it amounted, in 1816, to \$123,016,375 ; a sum exceeding by \$47,552,908, its original amount. It is probable, that many of the misfortunes of the country might have been spared, by maintaining, during peace, a better state of preparation for war, and a sum of money eventually saved, far greater than the amount of the retrenchment.

In 1808, the regular army consisted of only three thousand men. During that year, the government, Military force of the U. States. alarmed by the increasing aggressions of the European powers, increased it to nine thousand. The act to raise an additional force of twenty-five thousand, was passed so short a time previous to the declaration of war, that not more than one-fourth of the number were enlisted at that time ; and those were, of course, raw and undisciplined.

In addition to the regular army, the president was authorized to call on the governors of the states for detachments of militia, to an amount not exceeding one hundred thousand, and to accept the services of any number of volunteers, not exceeding fifty thousand. Thus the actual force at the commencement of the war in 1812, was small, and the troops were wholly inexperienced.

Nor had the army that high tone of public feeling, which made the soldiers of the revolution a band of heroes. The occasion, though important, was not so awfully momentous. Indeed, the administration, reluctant to change its pacific and economical policy, had suffered the highest state of public excitement for the injuries of Britain to pass away, before the declaration of war. This was the period immediately succeeding the outrage upon the Chesapeake, for which Britain had now made satisfaction. The nation felt itself so keenly wounded by that insult, that it would then have moved in its united majesty, to the vindication of its rights. But while the government delayed and temporized, the warmth of public feeling in a measure abated. That money-loving spirit, which the administration had formerly too much courted, was now offended by the operation of its restrictive system, and its political enemies had taken advantage of every subject of discontent, to excite opposition to its measures.

State of the revenue.

The state of the revenue in 1812, was far from being favourable to the prosecution of an expensive war. Derived almost solely from duties on merchandise imported, it was abundant in a state of commercial prosperity; but in time of war and trouble, the aggressions of foreign nations, which, in their operation, produced an increase of public expenditure, almost destroyed the means of defraying it. It was in consequence of this emergency, that congress authorized the loan of eleven millions of dollars, and increased one hundred per cent. the duties on imported goods and the tonnage of vessels.

Of the navy.

The condition of the navy was, in some material respects, better than that of the army. The situation of the United States, as a maritime and commercial nation, keeps her provided with seamen, who, in time of war, being transferred from merchant to warlike vessels, are already disciplined to naval operations. The recent contest with the Barbary states had given to the officers and men of the little American navy, experience in war; and their successes had inspired them with confidence in themselves and in each other.* The navy was, however, very small. Many enterprising individuals of the republic did indeed convert their merchant ships

* Com. Preble is regarded by some as the main spring of the prosperity of the American navy. It is said, that the gallant band of officers, who, in the late war, gained so much fame for themselves and for their country, were almost all formed under his instructions.

into privateers; but the vessels belonging to the government, at the commencement of the war, consisted of only ten frigates, ten sloops, and one hundred and sixty-five gun boats. This was all the public naval force which America could oppose to the thousand ships of the proud mistress of the ocean.

Among the few surviving officers of the revolutionary war, was Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, who was appointed major-general and commander-in-chief of the American army. His head quarters were at Greenbush, on the Hudson river, opposite Albany. Forces, acting under his direction, mostly composed of New-York militia, were stationed at Plattsburgh, and on the Niagara frontier: those at the latter place were, at the commencement of the war, under the command of generals Porter and Hull.

Gen. Dearborn,
commander-in-
chief.

About a year before the declaration of war, William Hull, governor of the Michigan territory, had, in his letters to the government, given a view of the situation of the country in the vicinity of the upper lakes. He reminded the administration, that they possessed, in that region, three military posts, viz Michilimackinack, Chicago, and Detroit. He asserted that the British forces at Amherstburg, (otherwise called Malden,) and at St. Joseph's, were about equal to those of the United States, at the three stations mentioned; and that should the militia of Upper Canada, in case of war, take a part, they were twenty to one superior to those of Michigan, the province containing one hundred thousand, the territory only five thousand inhabitants. The adjacent states, he said, were thinly inhabited, and needed their forces for their own defence. In addition to the superiority in population on the British side, Gov. Hull warned the government to expect that the numerous Indian tribes, of whose services the humane policy of America forbade her acceptance, would, in the event of war, the condition in which they most delighted, unite with her foe. He urged the importance of Detroit, as being the key of the northern country, and the only spot from which the Indians could be kept in check. He stated that a wilderness, nearly two hundred miles in extent, and infested by savages, separated it from any point whence supplies could be drawn by land; and advised the administration to prepare a naval force on lake Erie, superior to the British, and sufficient to preserve a water communication. If the government should not think proper to listen to this advice, Gov. Hull suggested, as the next most expedient measure, immediately on the declaration of war, to invade Upper Canada by a powerful army from Niagara, which should co-operate with a force from Detroit; and thus take possession of the whole province. And he gave it as his opinion, that unless one or the other of these measures should be adopted, the posts of Detroit, Mackinaw, and Chicago must inevitably fall into the hands of the enemy.

Situation of the
northwest fron-
tier.

To these suggestions of Hull may, in part, be traced the plan of the campaign which was formed at Washington, and which seems to have had the conquest of Montreal for its ultimate object. But instead of concentrating the force, and moving directly to this point, the American troops were scattered along the extensive northern frontier. It was intended to invade simultaneously at Detroit and Niagara, with the expectation that the armies from these places would move in the direction of Montreal, and be joined, on the way, by the force stationed at Plattsburg.

The army, destined for Detroit, was collected at Dayton, in Ohio, some time before the declaration of war. The president of the United States had made a requisition of twelve hundred men on the governor of that state. This number was immediately filled by volunteers, who were divided into three regiments, commanded by colonels M'Arthur, Cass, and Findlay. These troops were joined by the fourth regiment of infantry, and a few other regulars, amounting, in the whole, to about three hundred, under the direction of Col. Miller. These, together with a few straggling volunteers, who followed the army, and were included in the return, composed the whole of this force, the command of which was given to Hull, who had served with reputation in the army of Washington, and who had been, for several years, the governor of Michigan. But although he had been a brave man in his youth, age had now paralyzed his energies; nor is it probable, that nature ever gave to him the firmness, decision, and activity, necessary to the military commander; who must often in war reverse the maxims of peace, as he often finds himself in situations, where, to be long in deliberation, and slow in action, is a fatal imprudence.

The general having been ordered by the government to proceed to Detroit, and there to wait for further orders, the army left Dayton about the middle of June, and, passing through Stanton and Urbana, traversed the uncultivated region between the latter place and the rapids of the Maumee, or Miami of the lakes. The army had been obliged to remove obstructions, and make their own road, yet they reached the Rapids on the 30th of June.

On the 26th, four days previous, General Hull had received, by express, a letter from Mr. Eustis, the secretary of war, written on the morning of the 18th, the day on which war was declared. Strange as it may seem, this letter merely reiterated former orders, and contained expressions which indicated that war would soon be declared. Expecting to be informed, by express, whenever the declaration should actually occur, and not dreaming that the British could be in possession of such important intelligence, from the American government, earlier than himself; Hull, for the purpose of disencumbering his army, and

Army of the
northwest, their
number, &c.
commanded by
Hull.

They march to-
wards Detroit.

facilitating their march, hired a vessel, which had sailed as a packet, to convey to Detroit his sick, his hospital stores, and a considerable part of his baggage. This vessel, which sailed on the first of July, fell into the hands of the British, near Malden, who had been two or three days in possession of the information that war was declared. With Hull's private baggage, his aid-de-camp unfortunately had placed on board the vessel a trunk of public papers, by means of which the enemy became possessed of his correspondence with the government, and the returns of his officers, showing the number and condition of his troops.

July 1.
Hull sends his baggage by water, and it is captured.

The intelligence of the declaration of war, Gen. Hull received on the 2d of July, in a second letter from Mr. Eustis, of June 18th, which was not sent by express, but by mail.

July 2.
Learns that war is declared.

The fortress of Malden, or Amherstburg, garrisoned by six hundred men, and commanded by Col. St. George, was the strong hold of the British, and their Indian allies, for the province of Upper Canada. It is situated on the Detroit river, near its entrance into lake Erie. On the opposite American bank, is the Indian village of Brownstown, through which passes the road from Ohio to Detroit; a communication on which Hull, in the event of the British keeping possession of the lake, must depend for the supplies of his army. But they would be liable to be cut off, as the British, having command of the waters, could, at any time, land detachments on the opposite side. Thus, for Hull to proceed from the Rapids to Detroit, was to advance, and leave an enemy's fortress in his rear. The orders of the secretary of war, that he should proceed to Detroit, were, however, explicit; nor do we learn, that at the time the American general remonstrated with the government, although he afterwards considered this as the fatal order which caused his misfortunes.* Pursuant to this mandate, he continued his march, and reached Detroit on the 5th of July. Here he permitted his army to rest for a few days, from their toilsome march through the wilderness, the fatigues of which they had borne with exemplary patience. The Americans were here employed in cleaning and repairing their arms, which were, at the commencement of the march, in a bad condition, especially those of the Ohio militia.

Situation of Malden.

July 5.
Hull arrives at Detroit.

An impatience prevailed to cross the river, and invade Canada immediately. Gen. Hull, on the 9th, called a council of his officers, in

* See Hull's Memoirs. It seems probable, that Hull's representation of the importance of Detroit, induced the secretary to give this order.

which he explained to them, that his directions from the government were to remain at Detroit, and await further orders, and, on that account, he could not then invade Canada; but it was the opinion of his officers that he ought, notwithstanding, to take immediate possession of the opposite bank of the river.

July 9.

Hull authorized
to invade Cana-
da. His incon-
sistent conduct.

On the same day, soon after the breaking up of the council, Gen. Hull received a letter from Mr. Eustis, saying that "should the force under your command be equal to the enterprise, and consistent with the safety of your own posts, you will take possession of Malden, and extend your conquests as circumstances will allow." Gen. Hull, in his answer, on the same day, states to the secretary, that he did not think his force equal to the reduction of Malden; that the British commanded the water and the savages; yet he said he should pass the river in a few days. On the 10th, he again wrote to the government, saying, "the communication must be secured, or this army will be without provisions. This must not be neglected. If it is, this army will perish by hunger." On the 11th, he wrote to Gov. Meigs, of Ohio, a similar communication. From this statement of Gen. Hull, and from the tenor of his former communications, the government ought to have considered his army in a perilous situation, and to have taken measures for its preservation; at the same time, so long as Hull had no assurances of reinforcements, his order being to invade if he considered his own force sufficient; and as he had no pledge from the government, that any provision was making to relieve him by taking possession of the lakes, or keeping open the communication to Ohio; it would seem that he should not have acted in so momentous a concern, on the presumption that on account of his former advice, these things would have been done. Consistently with his own expressed opinions, he should have made use of the discretion granted him, to remain on the defensive, until he had sufficient reason to believe that those measures, which he had stated to the government as being essential to the safety of the post, were in a state of actual accomplishment:—in the meantime taking all due pains to keep the sentiments of the army in his favour, and warmly soliciting the aid of his government. Had he pursued this course, consequences could not have followed, so wounding to the honour of his country, as those which accrued. Another course of bolder policy also presented itself, in accordance with the views of most of his officers. This supposed, that the army of Hull was, of itself, competent to the reduction of the enemy's country, and that prompt and vigorous measures would place at his command the fortress of Malden, the key of Upper Canada, and the great obstruction in the way of its own supplies. Had this policy been consistently pursued, its result, though it might not have been successful, would certainly have been honour-

able. Hull appears to have vacillated between the two, and thus he failed of securing the advantages of either.

Gen. Hull crossed into Canada on the 12th of July, and directing his march southerly, took post at Sandwich, and issued from that place his famous proclamation. This was a bold and imposing composition, and backed by the presence of an invading army, had all the effect which the Americans could have desired. The Indians were awed into neutrality, and the Canadians favourable to the American cause, either remained quietly at home, or joined their ranks. In it, he placed before the inhabitants of Canada the advantages of uniting with the United States rather than remaining as an appendage of Britain; and promised, in the name of his country, protection to their persons, property, and rights, if they remained quietly at home; but, on the contrary, if they united with the savages against America, he threatened them with a war of extermination. "Had I," continues the proclamation, "any doubt of ultimate success, I should ask your assistance; but I come prepared for every contingency. I have a force which will break down all opposition, and that force is but the vanguard of a much greater;" alluding here to the expected invasion from Niagara. If Hull intended this proclamation as a stratagem of war, in the commencement of a set of desperate measures, entire success might have justified it; to insure which, his sword should have been as prompt as his pen, and his military manœuvres as energetic as his language. To rise so high as the tone of this proclamation, so soon to sink to the degrading surrender of a whole army, without a sword having been drawn, was a mortification to which he should not have subjected his country. Neither the government, nor Gen. Dearborn, could, without some secret explanation, have regarded it as the language of an officer who considered his army already in the desperate predicament of a "severed limb,"* requiring their utmost care to assist in uniting it to the body.

July 12.
Hull invades
Canada, and is-
sues a procla-
mation.

Some of the officers were ardent to proceed immediately to the attack of Malden, but Gen. Hull deemed it expedient to wait for his heavy artillery, which was preparing at Detroit; and in his opinion he was supported by a majority of a council of war, which he called on the 14th of July.

The army continued at Sandwich, while occasional parties scoured the adjacent country, and collected some provisions. On the 15th, Col. Cass, with a detachment of 280 men, left the camp, having obtained the general's permission to reconnoitre the ground between Sandwich and Malden. Within four miles of Malden, the river Aux Canards

* See Hull's Memoirs.

July 15.
Affair at the
river Aux Ca-
nards.

presented an obstruction to the approach of the American troops to the British fortress. Col. Cass attacked the party stationed as a guard, and after killing ten of their number, took possession of the bridge. This attack was made without orders from the commander. Col. Miller, who accompanied Cass, agreeing with him that this pass was important to the Americans, they sent to ask of the general to make provision for guarding and retaining it; but, in his opinion, an attempt to maintain the conquered position, would bring on a general action, which he thought unwise, as Col. M'Arthur was then absent with a considerable detachment, and it had been determined to wait for artillery. He sent orders, not positive, however, but discretionary, to abandon the bridge, and return to the camp, which the party accordingly did.

Gov. Meigs, of Ohio, to whom Gen. Hull had sent for supplies, had despatched Capt. Brush, with a quantity of provisions. Early in August, Hull had been informed that this detachment had proceeded to the river Raisin, and that a party of British and Indians had been sent from Malden to Brownstown, to intercept it. On the 4th of August, Gen. Hull, at the request of the Ohio officers, detached about 200 men, under Maj. Van Horn, to open the communication, and escort Capt. Brush

Aug. 8.
Van Horn
defeated at
Brownstown.

to the camp. The detachment arrived at Brownstown, on the 8th, and although warned of their danger, they suffered themselves to be surprised by an Indian ambuscade. Being fired upon, the Americans at first returned the fire, but soon after fled in disorder to Detroit, leaving eighteen dead upon the field, and having twelve wounded.

July 17.
Mackinaw sur-
renders.

About the first of August, Gen. Hull received the disastrous intelligence of the fall of Mackinaw. It had been attacked, on the 17th of July, by a party of British and Indians, principally the latter, amounting in the whole to 1024.* Lieut. Hanks, who commanded at this fort, had only 57 men under his command; nor had he been informed of the declaration of war, when he received the summons to surrender. On learning the strength of the enemy, he capitulated, by the unanimous advice of his officers; stipulating, however, that his garrison should march out of the fort with the honours of war. This event filled Hull with surprise and consternation. He had nothing now to expect, but that these hordes of northern savages would come down upon him.

Savages are ri-
sing against the
Americans.

This alarm was increased by an intercepted letter from a gentleman belonging to the British North West Company, at fort William, from which he received the intel-

* The party was composed of whites, 306; Sioux, 56; Winnebagoes, 48; Tallesawain, 39; Chippewas and Ottawas, 572. This account shows that several tribes of those regions were, at this time, in arms against the Americans.

ligence, that this enterprising association, by whose means Mackinaw had been taken, were still employed with great activity and success in inciting the Indians against the Americans, and that several thousands in those regions were already in arms. The Indian tribes in his more immediate vicinity, he found were also rising against him. Of these the Wyandots were the most formidable; as his supplies from Ohio must pass through their country.

On the 5th of August, he again called a council of officers, to deliberate on the expediency of proceeding to the attack of Malden, without the artillery, which had not been made ready, but was expected in two days. After deliberation, it was agreed to wait two days, and if not then ready, to attack without it. Accordingly, the 8th was the day fixed on for the assault; but intelligence, received between the 5th and 8th, induced the general to alter his plan. Letters were received from generals Porter and Hall, who commanded on the Niagara frontier, informing him that the enemy were leaving their post in that direction, and were bending all their forces against him; and that he had nothing to expect from a diversion at Niagara. He was further informed, that a considerable number of these troops had already reinforced the garrison at Malden.

Hull determines to attack Malden, but changes his plan.

Gen. Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, had been directed by the government to invade Canada from Niagara, and co-operate with Hull. While tardily engaged in preparations to execute this order, Colonel Baynes was sent from Montreal, by Sir George Prevost, the governor-general of Canada, with a flag, to the American commander at Greenbush. He carried despatches to the government, which contained the repeal of the British orders in council. But the main object of Prevost appears to have been, to procure (under pretence that this would probably produce a peace,) the consent of Gen. Dearborn to an armistice, in which Hull should not be included, that thus he might be able to turn his whole force against the only invader of the British territory. In this he was successful.

Dearborn agrees to an armistice.

The partial armistice was to take place on the 8th of August. It was, however, stipulated, by Gen. Dearborn, that if the president of the United States should disapprove it, hostilities should commence after four days' notice. But the transmission of the despatches to and from Washington, and the stipulated notice, would give to the governor of Canada, all the time which he wished. The president did disapprove the armistice, but before the commencement of hostilities, the objects of Sir George Prevost were effected.

General Hull had no intimation of the armistice, although he experienced its effects. The letters which he had received from generals Porter and Hall, destroyed the reasonable confidence which he had

entertained of co-operation from Gen. Dearborn, and also the unauthorized expectation, that something would be done by the American government to obtain possession of the lake. He felt the necessity of opening a communication with his supplies by the way of Ohio. It had been urged in the council, held on the 5th, that to take Malden would be the most certain measure to effect this; as Malden, the defence of the British forces, and the refuge of the Indians, was itself the source of its obstruction. This view of the subject was overruled by the consideration, that, as the British commanded the waters between Malden and the Ohio road, the Americans, although in possession of that fortress, would still be cut off from their desired communication. Hull believed that, amidst so many savage foes, a defeat would prove the destruction of his whole army. As the governor of the territory, he had long been accustomed to watch for the safety of the people, and to guard them from Indian outrages, to which the destruction of the army would leave them exposed without defence: and the vision of their burning habitations, their murdered women, perhaps his own daughter, and their mangled babes, rose to his imagination, and the father and paternal governor triumphed in his bosom over the military commander; and although he had pledged himself to lead his army to

Aug. 7. the attack—although his long delayed artillery was now
 Hull abandons ready for the expected assault, he gave, on the afternoon
 Malden. of the 7th, the positive order for his army to return to
 Detroit.

Whether the views which induced the retreat of Hull from Malden, were correct or not, can never be ascertained; because the issue of a contest was not tried: but posterity will not doubt that he acted from the best dictates of his judgment, although it was warped by womanly tenderness, and the too cautious fears of age. The man and the warrior should have stirred within him, at the thought of the glory he might have acquired for himself and his country; the disgrace which would attend his retreat, and his desertion of those Canadians, who, allured by his high promises, had trusted to his protection. If he spared the blood of his country, it will, in future ages, reproach his memory, that he spared it too dearly, because at the expense of its honour. If Hull, with the army under his command, intended a contest with the enemy, it would seem that every reason was in favour of his encountering it at Malden, rather than going to await it at Detroit; for, with his views of the numerous force which was gathering against him, he ought to have calculated that he should be followed, and thus the war brought to his own door. The delay gave the enemy time to concentrate their forces, which, not being yet united, he might have defeated in detail. The variance of his views, with those of his officers, has already been noticed. Neither party adopting those of the other, dis-

content and dissatisfaction arose between them. This was manifested on the part of Hull, by his taking the resolution to retreat from Malden, without consulting them; and on the part of the officers, not only by the murmuring and reluctance with which they obeyed his orders, but by a plan which was, about this time, in agitation to deprive him of the command, and choose a more energetic leader. The soldiers were as little satisfied as their officers. Having understood, from their general's proclamations, that they were a force which could "break down all opposition," having expected the attack on Malden, with all the confidence of success, it is not surprising that this unexpected order of their commander should have filled them with disappointment and chagrin.

It was on the 8th of August that the American army recrossed the river, and once more took post at Detroit. On the same day, Gen. Hull despatched the flower of his army, amounting to six hundred men, under Col. Miller, to open the communication to the river Raisin, the service which had been vainly attempted by Van Horn. At Maguaga, near Brownstown, Col. Miller met, on the 9th, a body of the enemy, consisting of British, Canadians, and Indians, who, having received information of his approach, had crossed over from Malden, and were drawn up in the woods in regular order of battle. After a severe contest, the enemy were compelled to retreat. Col. Miller pursued them about two miles. They embarked under cover of their armed vessels, and returned to Malden. In this engagement, Tecumseh, the celebrated Shawanese chief, was the hero of the British force. He, with his Indians, kept his ground, while the regular troops gave way, although he was wounded in the battle, and about forty of his Indians were found dead upon the field. The American loss, in killed and wounded, was about eighty. As soon as Gen. Hull had received a communication from Col. Miller, he sent to that officer a reinforcement of one hundred men, under Col. M'Arthur, with a supply of provisions. A severe storm of rain intervening, to which the troops were exposed, without covering, Gen. Hull was induced to order the return of both parties to Detroit. Arrangements were now made to open a communication where they would be less exposed to incursions from Malden. To this measure, Hull was led by a letter from Capt. Brush, who informed him, that he should endeavour to reach Detroit by a circuitous route. Colonels M'Arthur and Cass volunteered for this service, and were directed by Hull to select the choicest troops of their regiments. They detached about three hundred and fifty men, and left the fort on the 13th of August.

Aug. 8.
Hull returns to
Detroit.

Aug. 9.
Battle of Ma-
guaga.

Aug. 13.
M'Arthur and
Cass detached.

On the return of Hull to Detroit, he manifested, by his measures, his fears for the safety of his post. He sent, on the 9th, an order to

Aug. 15.
Chicago surrendered, and the garrison defeated by the Indians.

Capt. Heald, the commander at Chicago, to evacuate that place, and conduct the garrison to Detroit. Accordingly, on the morning of the 15th, he set out with about seventy Americans, and fifty friendly Indians, escorting several women and children. At a small distance from the fort, they were attacked by a party of between four and five hundred savages. The little band made a desperate resistance, but being overpowered by numbers, thirty-six of the men, two women, and twelve children being slain in the engagement, they at length surrendered, under promise of protection from "Blackbird,"* an Indian chief of the Pottawattamie nation.

After Col. Miller's return, and before the detachment, under Cass and M'Arthur had left Detroit, Hull suggested to his officers the propriety of removing his army to some place near the Rapids of the Miami. His reasons were, that the whole force from Niagara, east from the upper lakes, and from Michigan, were collecting at Malden; that lake Erie was closed against the Americans; that the road from Ohio was obstructed by hostile Indians; that their country had not, as he could learn, any force prepared for their relief; that their provisions were nearly exhausted, and that, isolated as they were, they could not procure a supply. This measure, which his own judgment dictated, he failed of carrying into effect, because his officers did not approve it; and he was told that the Ohio militia would desert if he attempted it.

On the 13th, five days after the armistice on the Niagara frontier was to take effect, and about the same hour that Col. Cass and M'Arthur

Aug. 13.
Brock arrives at the British camp, and summons Hull to surrender.

marched, Gen. Brock, the most active and able of the British commanders in Canada, arrived to take the command of the British forces. Previous to his arrival, a party of the British, under Col. Proctor, who had succeeded Col. St. George, in the command at Malden, had

taken a position on the river opposite Detroit, and proceeded to fortify the bank, without interruption from the Americans. On the 14th, Gen. Brock arrived at Sandwich, and on the 15th, he sent a flag, bearing a summons to the American general to surrender; in which he says, "It is far from my intention to join in a war of extermination, but you must be aware that the numerous body of Indians, who have attached themselves to my troops, will be beyond my control, the moment the contest commences." To this Gen. Hull answered, "I have no other reply to make, than that I am prepared to meet any force which may be at your disposal, &c."—Gen. Brock immediately opened his batteries upon the town and fort, and several per-

* In several histories, it is related that he did not protect these prisoners, but that the women and children were massacred after the surrender. This story is not countenanced by Capt. Heald's official statement.

sons within the fort were killed. The fire was returned by the Americans with some effect. Gen. Hull, greatly alarmed, sent out an express, commanding the immediate return of the detachment under M'Arthur and Cass.

Early in the morning of the 16th, the British crossed the river, and landed under cover of their warlike vessels, at Spring Wells, three miles below Detroit. Between Aug. 16.
British land below Detroit. six and seven o'clock, they had effected their landing, and were marching towards the fort. Hull was perplexed and agitated. He believed that the territory was invaded by a force which it would be in vain to resist; that victory itself would be but a temporary advantage, whose ultimate result would be to deliver the inhabitants to the undistinguishing barbarities of an Indian massacre. Yet he was not insensible to the disgrace of surrendering without an effort, and even at this critical moment, he was wavering and indecisive in his operations, neither pursuing with consistency the policy of bravely defending his post, nor that of prudently putting his army in the best posture of defence, and then making honourable terms of capitulation. At first his army were drawn up in order of battle without the fort, his artillery was advantageously planted, and his army waited the approach of the enemy, full of the confidence of victory. The British were within five hundred yards of their lines, when suddenly an order from Gen. Hull was received, directing them to retire immediately to the fort. The indignation of the army broke forth, and all subordination ceased. They crowded into the fort, and without any order from the general, stacked their arms, some dashing them with violence upon the ground. Many of the soldiers wept. Even the spirit of the women rose indignant at this unexpected disgrace, and they declared, in the violence of their impotent wrath, that the fort should not be surrendered. Hull, perceiving that he had no longer any authority in his own army, and believing that the Indians were without, in large numbers, ready to fall upon the inhabitants, was anxious to put the place under the protection Aug. 16.
Hull surrenders Detroit. of the British. A white flag was hung out upon the walls of the fort. Two British officers rode up. Negotiations were immediately commenced; and a capitulation was concluded by Hull with the most unbecoming haste. His officers were not consulted; nor did he make any stipulations for the honours of war for his army, or any provision for the safety of his Canadian allies. All the public property was given up; the regular troops were surrendered as prisoners of war; the militia were to return to their homes, and not to serve again during the war, unless exchanged.

One of the reasons stated by Hull for his precipitate measures, was the absence of the detachment, under M'Arthur and Cass, which weakened his army, as they constituted one full quarter of his effective force,

and their situation exposed them to be entirely cut off. At his particular request, they were included in the capitulation; as was also the party with provisions, under Capt. Brush. Cass and M'Arthur arrived immediately after the capitulation, and surrendered agreeably to its conditions. Capt. Brush, having learned the circumstances of the surrender, from some Ohio militia, took the resolution not to regard its stipulations; and accordingly marched his party back to Ohio.

The number of effective men at Detroit, at the time of its surrender, is stated by Gen. Hull, in his official report, not to have exceeded 800; while the force of the enemy is said to have been at least double the number. Gen. Brock, in his report to Sir George Prevost, states his force to have been 1,300, of whom 700 were Indians.

Gen. Hull is said to have been treated with great indignity by the British in Canada, who obliged him to display the white hairs of a revolutionary veteran, in marching through the streets of some of their principal villages, to the American air of Yankee Doodle. Being exchanged, he was prosecuted by the government of the United States, and arraigned before a tribunal, of which Gen. Dearborn was president.

Hull receives
sentence of
death, but is
pardoned.

He was, by this tribunal, acquitted of treason, but sentenced to death for cowardice and unofficer-like conduct.

The criminal under sentence of death was not, however, imprisoned, but sent without a guard from Albany, where the court martial assembled, to his residence in the vicinity of Boston, to await there the decision of the president of the United States; to whose mercy the court, in consequence of his revolutionary services, recommended him. The president remitted the punishment of death, but deprived him of all military command.

SECTION IV.

Aug. 19.
Constitution
captures the
Guerriere.

ON the 19th of August, three days after the disgraceful surrender of Detroit, an event occurred, which, in a measure, healed the wounded pride of the Americans.

This was the capture of the British frigate *Guerriere*, under the command of Capt. Dacres, by the American frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Capt. Hull, which took place off the Grand Bank of Newfoundland. The captain of the British frigate, previous to the rencounter, had challenged any American vessel of her class, and the officers, in various ways, manifested their contempt of "the Yankees." On the approach of the *Guerriere*, Capt. Hull gave orders to receive

her occasional broadsides without returning the fire, and his crew calmly obeyed his orders, although some of their companions were falling at their guns. Having his enemy near, and his position favourable, Hull commanded his men to fire broadside after broadside, in quick succession. This was done, and with such precision and effect, that in thirty minutes, the *Guerriere* had her masts and rigging shot away, and her hulk so injured, that she was in danger of sinking. Sixty-five of her men were killed, and sixty-three wounded. Knowing that a few more broadsides would carry his ship to the bottom, Capt. Dacres struck his colours. The *Constitution* sustained but little injury. Her loss was seven killed, and seven wounded. The American frigate had a small superiority in the number of her guns, yet by no means in proportion to the superior advantage she obtained. The captured vessel was so much injured, that she could not be got into port, and was burned. Every mark of honour and distinction was paid to the gallant crew by their grateful countrymen. Several of the officers were promoted by congress, and fifty thousand dollars were distributed among the crew, as a recompense for the loss of the prize.

Soon after, another naval victory was announced. On the 7th of September, Capt. Porter, of the United States frigate *Essex*, entered the Delaware, after a successful cruise, in which, among other prizes, he had captured a British sloop of war. This was the *Alert*, commanded by Capt. Laugharne, which was encountered off the Grand Bank of Newfoundland, and taken after an action of eight minutes, the British having three men wounded.

Essex captures the Alert.

The operations on the frontier of New-York were, as has been remarked, under the direction of Gen. Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, whose head quarters were still at Greenbush. Brigadier-General Bloomfield commanded the force at Plattsburg; and Brigadier-General Smyth was now in command at Buffaloe. The militia of the state of New-York, then in the service of the United States, amounting to about 5,000 men, under Gen. Van Rensselaer, were mostly stationed on the Niagara frontier. Bodies of regulars and militia were also stationed at Black Rock, Sackett's Harbour, and Ogdensburg.

Situation of the forces on the New-York frontier.

Gen. Van Rensselaer made his head quarters at Lewiston, on the Niagara river. The militia demanded to be led against the enemy, and the general determined to gratify them, by attacking Queenstown, a fortified post of the British, on the opposite side of the river. On the 11th of October, he attempted to cross the Niagara, but the weather being tempestuous, the attempt was defeated. In the evening of the 12th, the army was reinforced by 300 regulars, under the command of Col. Christie. On the morning of the 13th, the attempt was again made to cross the Niagara, and succeeded.

Oct. 13.

Americans, un-

der Colonel Van
Rensselaer cross
to Queenstown.

One division of the troops was commanded by Col. Solomon Van Rensselaer. The other was the division of Col. Christie, and consisted of the same number of regulars. These were to be followed by Col. Fenwick's artillery, and the residue of the army. The first party, which effected a landing, was that of colonels Van Rensselaer and Christie, which had crossed about four o'clock in the morning, just before the dawn of day. As soon as the detachments landed, they were formed by order of Col. Van Rensselaer, (Col. Christie not having crossed with his men,*) for the purpose of storming the Heights of Queenstown.

While waiting for orders to ascend the heights, the American troops were attacked by the enemy on either flank. They were, however, met and repulsed; but they still kept up a fire which enfiladed the ranks of the Americans, of whom a considerable number were killed and wounded. The brave Col. Van Rensselaer was wounded severely; it was then supposed mortally.

Command de-
volves on Capt.
Wool.

Capt. Wool, on whom, as senior officer of the regular troops, the command devolved, was also wounded by a ball, which, striking him sidewise, passed through both his thighs. Seeking the disabled Van Rensselaer, Wool represented to him the critical situation of his troops; and, notwithstanding his wound, volunteered for any service which might relieve them. Col. Van Rensselaer directed, as the only effectual measure, the one first proposed, that of storming the British battery upon the heights. Wool conducted his force silently and circuitously, leaving the battery to his right, until he had passed it, and attained an eminence which commanded it. The British, finding that resistance would be in vain, left it to the Americans, and retreated down the heights to Queenstown.

Elated with their success, the Americans had fallen into disorder, when they again beheld their foe advancing. The intrepid Brock was

* Several of the histories of the war of 1812, are inaccurate in their accounts of this battle. Their errors proceed principally from the circumstance, that Gen. Van Rensselaer, owing to the confusion of the camp, at the time of making his official despatch, was not rightly informed of the facts, and was therefore incorrect in the statement which went before the public, and from which the histories have been chiefly compiled. No one regretted the error more than the general himself, as is manifested from the following letter, of which Captain, now General Wool, has, at my particular request, favoured me with a copy:—

“ Albany, December 24th, 1812.

“ Sir—In my official despatch to Gen. Dearborn, I was not sufficiently informed, to do justice to your conduct in the attack of the enemy on the Heights of Queenstown. The manner in which you met and repulsed the troops under Gen. Brock, when he fell, with the party under your command, merits the notice of government; and I hope your promotion will stimulate others to emulate your example.

Yours respectfully,

Capt. John E. Wool.

S. VAN RENSSELAER.”

at their head with a reinforcement of about 300 men from fort George. An officer raised a white flag, in token of surrender : Wool indignantly pulled it down. To keep the enemy at bay, until he could form his men, he despatched a body of sixty men, who advanced, but retreated without firing a gun. The British followed, and drove the Americans to the brink of the precipice. One soldier was about to descend. Wool ordered him to be shot ; but as the musket was levelled, he returned. Thus prohibiting either surrender or retreat, and being ably seconded by his officers, Wool rallied, and led on his troops to the attack. The British, in their turn, gave way, and retreated down the hill. Brock attempted to rally them amidst a galling fire from the Americans ; but, in the attempt, this brave and gallant foe was mortally wounded. His party no longer attempted resistance, but fled in disorder.

Brock killed,
and his party
defeated.

Soon after, Gen. Van Rensselaer, Col. Christie, and the other officers, who had been expected, joined their forces to the gallant band under Capt. Wool. That officer, faint with the loss of blood from his wound, crossed the river. Several others, who were wounded, and also some prisoners, taken in the battle, were carried over. The Americans on the heights considered the day as their own, when they were attacked by a body of British and Indians, probably amounting to 1,000, under Gen. Sheaffe, who had followed the energetic Brock, at a slower pace, from fort George. The battle becoming warm, and the Americans being hard pressed, Gen. Van Rensselaer recrossed the Niagara, for the purpose of bringing over the militia, who were on the opposite bank.

But those who, in the morning, had evinced so much courage and ardour in the prospect of a battle, having looked upon the blood of their wounded companions, who had been brought over, now became utterly regardless of the commands, nay, even the most urgent entreaties of their general, to go to the relief of their brethren. Two thousand five hundred of the militia remained idle spectators of the combat ; and to their cowardice may be attributed the defeat which ensued. For this conduct they had, since morning, found an excuse in the unconstitutionality of obliging the militia to make offensive war ; and they now declared that, in their opinion, it would be wrong for them to cross the national boundary.

Militia refuse to
cross, and the
Americans are
defeated.

The troops already on the Canadian shore, defended themselves bravely, but were at length overpowered, and obliged to surrender. Sixty of the Americans were killed, 100 wounded, and 700 surrendered themselves prisoners of war.

Ohio and Kentucky, particularly the latter, had aroused at the call of Hull for assistance, and an army on its march for Detroit was in the southern part of Ohio, when the news met them of the surrender of that

post. This news rather stimulated than repressed the ardour of the brave and patriotic inhabitants of the west. They continued their efforts in raising troops, until Kentucky is said to have put on foot 7,000, and Ohio nearly half that number. These had volunteered; nor were they all who had stepped forward, and offered their blood and toil for the honour of their country. Pennsylvania and Virginia also sent their bodies of volunteers to the aid of their brethren in the west. But it is to be lamented that the experience and skill of the officers, the discipline and subordination of the troops, were not equal to their zeal and courage.

On the 24th of September, William Henry Harrison, governor of the Indiana territory, and brigadier-general in the army, who possessed, more than any other man, the confidence of the western citizens, was appointed by congress, to the command of the whole of the forces. They had already advanced to the northwestern part of Ohio; their general plan of operation being to protect the country against the incursions of hostile savages, and to regain the ground lost by Hull's surrender.

The main division, consisting of 2,000, commanded by Harrison in person, was, at this time, at the river St. Mary's. Another division, under Gen. Winchester, consisting of 2,000, had penetrated as far as fort Defiance; but they were in want of provisions, and had sent to Harrison for relief. That general immediately marched with a considerable part of his troops, and, on the 3d of October, joined Gen. Winchester, at fort Defiance. He returned the next day to St. Mary's, having previously ordered Gen. Tupper, with 1,000 of the Ohio militia, to proceed to the Rapids of Miami, to dislodge the enemy, and take possession of that place. A want of experience on the part of the officers, and of proper subordination on that of the troops, produced a failure in this, and another similar attempt made by the same officer, and the British still retained possession of that post.

Sept. 4. The Indians in the Indiana territory were, in the meantime, manifesting a hostile spirit. On the 4th of September, fort Harrison, on the Wabash, was attacked by several hundreds of these savage foes. Capt. Taylor, who commanded, had a garrison of fifty men, but on account of sickness, fifteen only were effective, yet he repelled the assailants with great intrepidity, killing a considerable number, while he lost only three of his own men. The savages, irritated at this defeat, surprised and massacred a settlement consisting of twenty-one persons, men, women, and children, at the mouth of White river.

Gov. Shelby, of Kentucky, issued an address, calling for an additional number of mounted volunteers, for the defence of the territories

of Indiana and Illinois. On the second of October, more than 2,000 had assembled at Vincennes. This body was placed under the command of Gen. Hopkins. On the 10th, they arrived at fort Harrison. Here the destruction of the Kickapoo and Peoria towns was proposed. This plan meeting with general approbation, the troops set forward for its execution. On the fourth day of the march, the army, being in an extensive prairie of dried grass, perceived suddenly, alarming volleys of smoke and flame advancing with the wind. The Indians had set fire to the long thick grass of the prairie. The Americans immediately resorted to the only expedient which could save the army. They set fire to the grass in an opposite direction, the wind now carrying the flames from them, and then marched on to the ground, thus cleared of combustibles.*

Oct.
Hopkins' expedition against the Kickapoos.

In the meantime, the militia became mutinous, and a major, named Singleton, apparently wishing to bring on a quarrel with the general, rode up to him, as the troops were resting, and ordered him, in a peremptory manner, to take up his line of march, or his battalion would instantly leave him. Hopkins called a council of his officers, who agreed to take the sense of the army as to the propriety of returning. The majority were in favour of that measure; but Hopkins, who entirely disapproved it, notwithstanding the vote of the army, put himself at their head, and commanded them to follow him, promising to lead them, in one day more, to the accomplishment of their object. But they turned their faces in the opposite direction, and marched towards home, the general following in the rear. Thus, in consequence of insubordination, this expedition, which commenced with so much individual patriotism, produced nothing in the event but public disgrace.

Another expedition, which was undertaken by the same officer, for a similar object, was conducted with better success. With a force of one thousand men, mostly regulars and militia, he left fort Harrison, and, on the 19th of November, destroyed the Prophet's town, and a Kickapoo village, four miles distant; these places having been previously evacuated by the inhabitants. A skirmish took place between a party of the militia and an ambuscade of the Indians, in which eighteen of the militia were killed. Gen. Hopkins endeavoured to draw on a general action, but failing in this, he returned to Vincennes.

Nov.
Hopkins destroys Prophet's town.

Col. Russel, in a similar incursion, with three hundred regulars, surprised and destroyed a town called the Pi-mertams. He drove the Indians into a swamp, killed twenty of them, and brought off eighty horses. About the same time, another expedi-

Indian towns destroyed.

* This operation is called setting a back fire, and is frequently necessary. The Indians often resort to this measure to distress an army.

tion was undertaken by Col. Campbell, of the regular army, with 600 men. On the 17th of November, he marched against the towns of the Missisneway, succeeded in destroying them, and overawing the Indians.

No operations of importance were undertaken by the northern army, during this campaign. In September, a detachment of militia from Ogdensburg, attacked a party of the British, who were moving down the St. Lawrence, and defeated them. They were reinforced, and, in their turn, compelled the militia to retire. In retaliation, the British attempted the destruction of Ogdensburg, on the 2d of October; but they were repulsed by Gen. Brown, the energetic commander at that station.

Oct. 2.
British attack-
Ogdensburg.

Oct. 22.
Attack on St.
Regis.

On the 22d of October, Maj. Young, who commanded a detachment of the New-York militia, at French Mills, made an attack upon the British at the Indian village of St. Regis. The Americans, without the loss of a man, killed five of the British, and took forty prisoners.

On the 16th of November, the army at Plattsburg moved towards the Canada frontier, and encamped at Champlain. On the 18th, Gen. Dearborn took the command. Soon after, Col. Pike, with his regiment, made an incursion into the territory of the enemy, surprised a party of British and Indians, and destroyed a considerable quantity of public stores.

It had been expected that the army in this direction would invade Canada, but the failures on the Niagara frontier and at Detroit, prevented the co-operation of these armies; and, on the 23d, the troops at Plattsburg went into winter quarters.

Dec. 23.
Northern army
go into winter
quarters.

On the 12th of November, Gen. Alexander Smyth, who succeeded Gen. Van Rensselaer in the command of the army of the centre, issued

Nov.
Gen. Smyth un-
dertakes to in-
vade Canada.

an inflated address to "The men of New-York," assuring them, that, in a few days, he should plant the American standard in Canada, and inviting them to "come on," and share the glory of the enterprise. A considerable number volunteered, probably however, more from their confidence in the character of Gen. Porter, who was to be associated with Smyth, and who was to command the volunteers, than from the effect of that general's ridiculous and bombastic appeal. Preparatory to crossing the army, Gen. Smyth sent two parties, on the night of the 27th of November, one under Col. Børstler, and the other under Capt.

Col. Børstler
and Capt. King
cross the Niaga-
ra.

King, who was accompanied by Lieut. Angus, of the navy, with a small but valiant band of marines: the whole under the direction of Gen. Winder. The party under Børstler, whose object was to destroy a bridge, went several miles down the river, dispersed the enemy, made several pri-

soners, but returned, without having accomplished their object. That under King, who were ordered to attack the batteries, opposite Black Rock, performed the service in a most gallant manner. Nine out of twelve of the naval officers, who embarked in the affair, and half of the seamen, were either killed or wounded. They had dispersed the enemy, rendered useless their artillery, and prepared the way for the safe landing of the army who had been ordered to embark at Reveille. The van, commanded by Gen. Winder, crossed the river; but, being met on the opposite shore, by a heavy fire from the British, they returned with the loss of fifteen men. Delays occurred, and the whole army were not embarked till noon. Gen. Smyth, at this time, ordered them to disembark to dine. It was then found, that there were not sufficient boats to carry over 3,000 men at once, as had been the orders of the secretary of war; and the general, amidst the murmurings of the army, concluded to postpone the invasion. Most of the brave men who crossed, succeeded in returning; but some were made prisoners, among whom was Capt. King. Not finding boats enough to cross over his whole party, he sent all his officers and part of his men, but would not desert the remainder, and was captured with them.

On the 30th of November, Gen. Smyth again ordered the troops to embark the next morning, for the purpose of fulfilling his pledge of planting the standard of America on the shores of her enemy. They did not go on board the boats as early as was expected, and again the general failed of embarking 3,000 at once. The fate of the day at Queenstown, (honourable to America in comparison with those,) seems to have been in his mind, and he had no confidence that those who remained behind would cross at all, if those who went over should be in danger. He, therefore, disgracefully abandoned, without an effort, the enterprise he had so boastingly pledged himself to perform; ordered his troops to disembark, the regulars to go into winter quarters, and the volunteers to return to their homes. A scene of riot and confusion ensued. Four thousand men, indignant, and perfectly uncontrolled, were discharging their muskets in every direction, making this a more dangerous field than they would probably have encountered on the territory of the enemy.

On the 18th of October, the American sloop of war Wasp, commanded by Capt. Jones, encountered the British sloop of war Frolic, under the direction of Capt. Whinyates, off the island of Bermuda. Both vessels had suffered injuries from a recent storm, but the British was superior in weight of metal. The American at first received the fire of her enemy, at the distance of fifty or sixty yards, but gradually lessening this distance, she fired her last broadside so near, that her rammers, while loading, were shoved against the side of the Frolic. Capt. Jones then

Smyth abandons
the enterprise.

Oct. 18.

The U. S. sloop
of war Wasp
captures the
Frolic.

boarded her, but he trod her deck amidst the dead and dying, without finding a private in arms to oppose him. Three officers and the seamen at the wheel were all that were found alive on deck. Of the whole crew, consisting originally of one hundred and twenty, all, except twenty, were either killed or wounded. The Americans had five killed and five wounded. Capt. Jones did not long enjoy his bloody triumph. Two hours after the battle, a British seventy-four, the Poic-

Are both recaptured.

tiers, took both the victor and his prize, and carried them

both into Bermuda. On the return of Capt. Jones and

his officers, they were hailed by their countrymen with the most distinguishing marks of honour. His crew received twenty-five thousand dollars, and himself the command of a frigate, the *Macedonian*, subsequently captured.

Again the Americans triumphed on the ocean, and under circumstances which forced the English to the humiliating concession, which, for many years they had not made, that there existed a nation which was their equal in naval tactics; the Americans, not satisfied with this, claimed to be their superiors.* On the 25th of October, the frigate *United States*, commanded by the brave Decatur, whose deeds in the

Oct. 25.

Frigate *United States* captures the *Macedonian*.

Mediterranean had already made him regarded as the hero of the American navy, encountered the British frigate *Macedonian*, commanded by Capt. Carden. The engagement took place, where the twenty-ninth degree

of north latitude intersects the twenty-ninth and half degree of west longitude, and continued an hour and a half. The *Macedonian* being to the windward, had the advantage of choosing her own distance, which, for the first half hour, was so great, that the carronades of the American frigate were useless. When the *Macedonian* came to close action, the rapid and well-directed fire of the *United States*, proved fatal to her men, swept her masts and spars, and left her an "unmanageable log;" and the British captain reluctantly ordered the broad flag of his nation to be furled. When he offered his sword to Decatur, that officer, with a magnanimity equal to his valour and conduct, refused to take it, "from one who knew so well how to use it," but asked

* Extracts from Baynes' History will show the manner in which a Briton, but one who means to be candid, speaks of the American naval victories. "The mere superiority of force, on the part of the Americans, will not fully account for all the circumstances of the capture of the *Macedonian*. The *United States*' frigate seems to have been manœuvred and fought with a high degree of skill as well as bravery; in all the engagements between English and French ships, where the latter were superior in force to the former, the success of the English depended as much upon the display and exercise of skill and seamanship, as on superior bravery, and these advantages generally decided the contest in a short time after its commencement. But in the action now under consideration, as well as in that between the *Guerriere* and *Constitution*, the seamanship displayed by the Americans was at least equal to that exhibited by the British."

instead, to receive the friendly grasp of his hand. The loss in killed and wounded, on the side of the Americans, was only twelve, while that of the British was one hundred and four.

The naval campaign of this year, closed with another American victory, equal in brilliancy to any which had preceded. On the 29th of December, the fortunate Constitution, now commanded by Com. Bainbridge, descried, off the coast of Brazil, the British frigate Java, of forty-nine guns, and four hundred men, commanded by Capt. Lambert. An action commenced, and continued nearly two hours. The Constitution had nineteen men killed, and twenty-five wounded, but she had shot away the masts of the Java, killed sixty of her men, and wounded one hundred and one. The British colours, which, after every spar was gone, had been nailed to the stump of a mast, were at length torn down, and the British lion once more quailed before the American eagle.

Dec. 29.
The Constitution captures the Java.

Nor were these successes on the ocean confined to armed vessels. The swift sailing privateers, which issued from every American port, succeeded in capturing vessels of a superior force, and in harassing and destroying the enemy's commerce. Nearly 250 British vessels were captured, and 3,000 prisoners were taken, while but comparatively few of the American privateers fell into the hands of their enemies.

Success of privateers.

In viewing the results of the campaign of 1812, we find on land a series of disgraceful failures, altogether unparalleled in the history of America. The darkness of the picture is, however, relieved by occasional flashes of valour. These failures were the more mortifying, because the superiority of the Americans in numbers, over the small British force in Canada, was known to be great; and it was confidently expected, that at least all Upper Canada would have fallen during the first campaign.

But the ill success of the Americans on land, was counterbalanced by a series of naval triumphs, equally unexpected, and more mortifying to their enemy, than even their land defeats were to the United States. Great Britain regarded her superiority by sea as the vital part of her power, and the most melancholy apprehensions were, on this occasion, indulged by some of her politicians, who "predicted the total annihilation in the breasts of her seamen, of that proud confidence, which had been so eminently serviceable in leading them to victory."

SECTION V.

IN the civil and political transactions of belligerent powers, we find the causes of their military movements.

On the 23d of June, five days after the declaration of war, the British government repealed the orders in council.

June. No sooner had the United States declared war against America makes overtures for peace. Great Britain, than Mr. Monroe, the secretary of state, in his letter of June 26th, directed Mr. Russell, charge des affairs at the court of St. James, to state to the British government, that America had entered upon this contest with reluctance, and was ready to make peace, as soon as the wrongs, of which she justly complained, were redressed. Mr. Russell was authorized to negotiate an armistice by sea and land, on the condition, that the orders in council should be repealed; the impressment of American seamen discontinued, and those already impressed restored; and as an inducement to discontinue their practice of impressment, the American government pledged themselves, to pass a law, prohibiting the employment of British seamen, either in the public or commercial service of the United States.

These propositions being made by Mr. Russell, Lord Castlereagh, the British minister, on the twenty-ninth of August, communicated to him their rejection by his government; at the same time, informing him that measures had been taken to authorize Sir John Borlase Warren, the British admiral on the American station, to propose to the United States an immediate and reciprocal cessation of hostilities; and in that event, to assure them, that full effect should be given to the provisions for repealing the orders in council. On the subject of impressment, Lord Castlereagh said the British government were ready, as heretofore, to receive from the government of the United States any proposition which might check the abuse of the practice, but they could not consent to suspend the exercise of a right, upon which the naval strength of the empire materially depended, until they were fully convinced that other means could be devised and adopted, by which the object to be obtained by impressment could be secured.

While this correspondence was going on in England, negotiations were also carried on in America. The advantage which was taken by Sir George Prevost of the arrival of the intelligence, that the British had repealed their orders in council, in procuring of General Dearborn*

* General Dearborn doubtless supposed, that the object of the British was "to seek peace in the spirit of peace," not to entrap him, and gain an advantage in carrying on the war.

the partial and temporary armistice of the 8th of August, has already been noticed in treating of the causes of the misfortune and disgrace of General Hull.

On the 30th of September, Sir John Borlase Warren, then on the Halifax station, addressed a letter to Mr. Monroe, apprising him of the revocation of the orders in council, proposing a cessation of hostilities, and threatening, in case of a refusal, that the obnoxious orders should be revived. The American government had, in the meantime, been made acquainted with the failure of Mr. Russell's negotiation; and Mr. Monroe replied to Sir. J. B. Warren, that America could not hope for a durable peace, until the question of impressment was settled. "The claim of the British government," says Mr. Monroe, "is to take from the merchant vessels of other countries British subjects. In the practice, the commanders of the British ships of war often take from the merchant vessels of the United States, American citizens. If the United States forbid the employment of British subjects in their service, and enforce the prohibition by suitable regulations and penalties, the motive for the practice is taken away. It is in this mode that the president is willing to accommodate this important controversey with the British government, and it cannot be conceived on what ground the arrangement can be refused. He is willing that Great Britain should be secured against the evils of which she complains; but he seeks, on the other hand, that the citizens of the United States should be protected against a practice, which, while it degrades the nation, deprives them of their rights as freemen, takes them by force from their families and country into a foreign service, to fight the battles of a foreign power,

Correspondence
between Mr.
Monroe and Sir
J. B. Warren.

This appears from his letter to the secretary of war, dated Head Quarters Greenbush, of which the following is an extract:—

"Sir:—Colonel Baynes, adjutant-general of the British army in Canada, has this day arrived at that place, in the character of a flag of truce, with despatches from the British government, through Mr. Foster, which I have enclosed to the secretary. Colonel Baynes was likewise bearer of despatches from Sir George Prevost, which are herewith enclosed. Although I do not feel authorized to agree to a cessation of arms, I concluded that I might with perfect safety agree that our troops should act merely on the defensive, until I could receive directions from my government; but as I could not include General Hull in such an arrangement, he having received his orders directly from the department of war, I agreed to write to him, and state the proposition made to me, and have proposed his confining himself to defensive measures, if his orders and the circumstances of affairs with him would justify it. Colonel Baynes has written similar orders to the British officers in Upper Canada, and I have forwarded them to our commanders of posts, to be by them transmitted to the British commanders."

From this it appears that the views of the general were truly pacific; but it also shows, in connexion with the events of the history, that he was doubly entrapped. He himself sends the orders of Colonel Baynes to the British officers in Upper Canada; orders which gave them the information that they had no enemy to fear on the New-York frontier, but were at liberty to bend their whole force against Hull.

perhaps against their own kindred and country." The British admiral having no powers to enter on the question of impressment, nothing further remained to America, but to exchange the pen of the negotiator, for the sword of the warrior.

The warmth of party feeling had increased throughout the Union. Notwithstanding bravery had been exhibited by individual officers and soldiers, still the army had failed in the accomplishment of any important object. The enemies of the administration declared, that the ill success of the war was owing to the inefficient measures of the government in providing means for its prosecution; while its friends attributed the failure to the interference of the opposite party. Both were right in degree; as the government, wholly inexperienced in providing for the exigencies of war, probably failed in many respects of making judicious and seasonable provisions; and all its difficulties were increased by the ungenerous and almost treasonable opposition which it encountered. But had the expectations which, previous to the war, were entertained with regard to the efficiency of the militia system, been realized, and had the affairs of the army been managed well by the agents of government, its provisions, notwithstanding the inveteracy of its opponents, would have been sufficient to produce very different results from those which were actually experienced. It ought to have been remembered, that the United States were undergoing the trial of a great political experiment. Their constitution, which had succeeded in peace, had not been tested in war; and many had predicted, happily without truth, that it would then be found inadequate for public safety, and that the unwieldy mass of its incongruous parts, would then fall asunder.

The most alarming opposition to the national government, was not, however, that arising from mere individual clamour. The states of Massachusetts and Connecticut had been officially requested, by the president, to furnish detachments of their militia, and place them under Gen. Dearborn, for the defence of the maritime frontier. The constitution gives to congress, power to demand the services of the militia "for the execution of the laws, the suppression of insurrections, and the repelling of invasions;" and also declares, "that the president shall be commander-in-chief of the militia of the several states, when called into the service of the United States." These states refused to furnish the required detachments, on the ground that the state governments ought to determine when the exigencies of the nation require the services of their militia. They also decided that it was unconstitutional for the president to delegate his power to any officer, not of the militia, and who was not chosen by the respective states. This construction of the constitution, was favoured by the decision of the supreme court of

State of party
feeling.

Connecticut and
Massachusetts
refuse to furnish
troops.

Massachusetts, and as, in their opinion, exigencies did not exist which required the service of the militia, they refused to obey the call of the president. The sea coast of these states, and, also, of Rhode Island, which state subsequently adopted the same views, was thus deprived of an important means of defence; and public feeling was agitated with apprehensions of a civil, as well as a foreign war.

It was probably owing to this feeling, more than to any other cause, that, notwithstanding the ill success of the army, the result of the election of president was not only favourable to Mr. Madison, but showed a diminution of the federal, and an increase of the republican party.

Congress assembled on the fourth of November, after an unusual short recess. The increase of the army and navy early occupied their attention. As a greater encouragement to enlist, an act was passed on the 21st of November, by which an addition of two dollars per month was made to the pay of the non-commissioned officers and privates; by which, also, they were exempted from arrest for debts contracted either before or after enlistment. By another act twenty-five dollars were given, in addition to the existing bounty, to each recruit who would enlist for five years.

Congress assembled, and passed acts to encourage enlistment.

On the 30th of November, a bill was reported to the senate, and soon after passed that body, authorizing the construction of four ships, carrying each seventy-four guns, and six frigates, each of forty-four guns. The building of these vessels was strongly recommended by captains Hull, Stewart, and Morris. On the 22d of February, a supplementary act was passed, authorizing the increase of the navy on the lakes.

To increase the navy.

On the 14th of January, a bill passed, authorizing the president to increase the military force, by raising such a number of regiments of infantry, not exceeding twenty, as the service might require. As but little benefit had resulted from the employment of volunteers, the law was repealed which authorized the acceptance of their services. By the same act, the force was increased for the protection of the frontier.

1813.

To increase the army.

On the 26th, a bill passed, authorizing a loan of sixteen millions of dollars, for the year 1813, and, the following day, another was passed, giving to the president power to issue treasury notes, to an amount not exceeding five millions of dollars.

To borrow money.

On the 29th, congress passed a law, declaring, that no seamen should be employed in American vessels, but native citizens of the United States, or those who had become naturalized. This law was to be carried into effect at the close of the war.

The regular force of the United States now amounted to nearly fifty-five thousand men. An act was passed on the 13th of February, by

which, in addition to the officers of an inferior grade, six major-generals and six brigadiers were appointed.

Madison re-elected president.

On counting the votes, it was found that James Madison had been re-elected president, and Elbridge Gerry chosen vice president, for the ensuing term of four years; and they were, accordingly, on the 4th of March, inaugurated into office.

Plan of the campaign.

The scene of military operations, during the year 1813, comprehended the whole extensive northern frontier of the United States. At the opening of the campaign, the army of the west, under Gen. Harrison, was placed near the head of lake Erie; the army of the centre, under Gen. Dearborn, between the lakes Ontario and Erie; while the army of the north, under Gen. Hampton, occupied the shores of lake Champlain. The invasion of Canada was still the object of the American armies; and the force which Sir George Prevost, the viceroy of Canada, could bring to oppose them, was comparatively small. The defence of the Upper Provinces was committed to colonels Proctor and Vincent, while the command of the troops of Lower Canada was given to Gen. Sheaffe, who was, however, to act under the more immediate direction of the governor himself.

The head quarters of Gen. Harrison were, at this time, at Franklinton, in Ohio. Gen. Winchester had proceeded in advance of the main army, and hearing that a party of British were stationed at Frenchtown, he attacked and dispersed them. He remained at Frenchtown, with a part of his troops encamped in the open field, the remainder being behind a breastwork. On the morning of the 22d of January,

Battle of Frenchtown.

he was surprised by a combined force of British and Indians, under the command of the sanguinary Col. Proctor, and the Indian chiefs, Roundhead and Split-log. That part of the American force which encamped in the open field were soon thrown into disorder. Gen. Winchester and the other officers in vain attempted to rally. Many of them, unable to make their escape, were killed by the Indians. Gen. Winchester and Col. Lewis were taken prisoners. The American troops, however, continued fighting with great intrepidity, until they received Gen. Winchester's order to surrender. That general had sent this mandate, on being assured, by Col. Proctor, that if the Americans would surrender, they should be protected; otherwise he should not be responsible for the conduct of the Indians. The promised protection was not, however, granted; and Col. Proctor marched for Malden, leaving behind him, and without

Jan. 22.
Massacre at Frenchtown.

a guard, the helpless wounded prisoners. The merciless savages soon returned, set fire to the town, dragged the wounded from the houses, scalped them in the streets, and left their mangled bodies in the highway. In this melancholy affair the Americans lost in killed and wounded about five hundred;

an equal number were made prisoners of war. They were principally volunteers from the most respectable families of Kentucky, and thus, this bloody day clothed that state in mourning. The loss of the British, as stated by Col. Proctor, was twenty-four killed, and one hundred and fifty-eight wounded.

Gen. Harrison now removed his head quarters from Franklinton, to a fort which he had built at the Rapids of the Miami, named, in honour of the governor of Ohio, Fort Meigs. He was here be-
 sieged on the first of May, by Col. now Gen. Proctor, with a force of 1,000 regulars and militia, and 1,200 In-

May 1.
 Fort Meigs be-
 sieged.

dians. The American army, occupying a commanding position, and strongly entrenched, resisted the efforts of the besieging army. Their fate, however, hung in suspense, when, on the morning of the 5th, an officer arriving at the fort, announced the welcome intelligence that Gen. Clay, from whom he

Gen. Clay ad-
 vances to its re-
 lief.

came, was, with 1,200 Kentuckians, descending the Miami, and at that moment was but a few miles distant. Conceiving that the British army was now in his power, Harrison sent orders to land one half of the advancing troops on the side of the river opposite to the fort, to co-operate with him in forcing the British batteries. Col. Dudley, with a party of 800, was charged with this service; and he performed it with so much spirit, that, in a few minutes, he was in possession of the batteries of the besiegers, and had taken several prisoners; but his troops, unduly elated, pursued the British until they were drawn into an ambuscade, prepared for them by the subtle Tecumseh. The whole party, with the exception of 150, were cut off. The brave Dudley strove in vain to rescue his troops. Being mortally wounded, he still continued the contest, and killed an Indian warrior before he fell himself.

In the meantime, a sortie from the fort, under Col. John Miller, brought on a general engagement, in which the British were defeated. The Indian warriors, either displeased at their want of success, or desirous to display their trophies to their several tribes, and to gratify their thirst for blood by the immolation of a portion of their captives, now withdrew from the army of Proctor, notwithstanding the entreaties of Tecumseh, who was himself ever faithful to the cause which he espoused. Thus situated, Proctor, on the 9th of May, raised the siege of fort Meigs, and retreated to Malden. Gen. Harrison returned to Ohio, leaving Gen. Clay in command.

British defeated.

May 9.
 Siege raised.

In July, the Six Nations declared war against the Canadas. About the same time, the United States accepted the services of some of the other tribes. The government, at the commencement of the war, deprecating the policy of employing savage allies, and justly considering the power

July.
 Six Nations de-
 clare war a-
 gainst Canada

which employed them as responsible for their known barbarities, had refused the services of such as had offered, and had uniformly advised them to remain neutral. This advice had in many cases given offence, being construed as implying a disrespect of their valour. It had been found that such was their fondness for war, that the only alternative for the administration was to receive their hostile efforts upon the heads of their own inhabitants, or turn them upon the enemy's; who, having first employed them, the law of retaliation now fully authorized the American government to do the same. The Indians, allied with the British, had committed depredations on those friendly to the Americans, and on this account they now considered themselves a party in the warfare. From these reasons, the Americans at length consented that they should "take hold of the same tomahawk," and make common cause with them.

Aug. 1.
Fort Stephenson
besieged; and
Proctor repul-
sed.

On the 20th of July, Proctor, having again collected about 500 of his Indian allies, with about as many regulars, marched against fort Stephenson, on the Sandusky river. On the 1st of August, he invested it, and demanded a surrender. Maj. Croghan, a gallant youth, of twenty-one, with a garrison of 160 men, took the resolution of defending the fort to the last extremity, notwithstanding the threat, which in former instances had been found so potent, that after the contest had commenced, the Indians could not be restrained. By his judicious measures, and the courage and promptness of the officers and men, Proctor was repulsed with a loss of 150; the Americans losing only one killed and seven wounded. The mortified Proctor, completely foiled, returned to Malden; and no military operation of consequence was undertaken, until the Americans, having command of the lakes, were able to act offensively.

SECTION VI.

WE now go back several months to give a view of the operations of the contending armies, on the New-York frontier.

Early in February, Maj. Forsyth, an enterprising partisan officer, who commanded some American troops stationed at Ogdensburg, crossed the St. Lawrence with a party of his riflemen and some volunteers, surprised the guard at Elizabethtown, and took 52 prisoners, together with a quantity of arms and ammunition.

Feb. 22.
Attack on Og-
densburgh.

On the 22d of February, Sir George Prevost, who had recently arrived at Prescott, directed an attack upon Ogdensburg, which was made on the same night, by a

corps of 500 regulars and militia, under Major Macdonual. The Americans refused to surrender at their summons, and notwithstanding they were much inferior in numbers, they fought with great bravery for an hour, when they were compelled to retire, and abandon their artillery and stores to the British. Two schooners, two gun boats, together with the barracks, were committed to the flames.

Pursuant to the law passed by congress, early efforts were made to build and equip fleets upon the lakes. The preceding year, the Americans did not possess a single armed vessel on lake Erie, and none on lake Ontario, save the brig Oneida, of sixteen guns. On the 8th of October, 1812, the gallant Capt. Elliot, with 100 men, embarked in two boats, crossed the Niagara, from Black Rock, and took two British brigs from under the guns of fort Erie, from which a heavy fire was kept up upon his party. One of these brigs, called the Detroit, was burned; the other, the Caledonia, was added to the American naval force.

1812.

Oct. 8.

Two British vessels on lake Erie taken.

It was in 1812, that Com. Chauncey was sent by the government to take the command on the lakes. He arrived at Sackett's Harbour, on the 6th of October.

Chauncey prepares a fleet on lake Ontario.

By great exertions he had succeeded in preparing a flotilla to aid in the operations of the ensuing campaign. Its first important service was that of transporting Gen. Dearborn's army, from Sackett's Harbour to York, the capital of Upper Canada, which that general, by the advice of Gen. Pike, a much valued officer, had determined to attack. He embarked with 1,700 men, and on the 27th of April, arrived before York. The force of the enemy, under the command of Gen. Sheaffe, consisted of 750 regulars and 500 Indians, besides a body of grenadiers, and a corps of Glengary fencibles. These troops had collected near the place of debarkation, which was nearly a mile and a half from the fort. Maj. Forsyth was the first who landed. Gen. Pike, to whom the command of the attack had been given, soon followed with the remainder of the troops. After a severe contest of half an hour, the enemy retreated to their works. The Americans formed, advancing in columns. They had destroyed one of the batteries, and were within sixty yards of their main works, when the tremendous explosion of a magazine, at two hundred yards' distance, filled the air in every direction, with huge stones and fragments of wood, which falling, caused a dreadful havoc among the troops. One hundred of the Americans, and forty of the British, were killed. Gen. Pike fell mortally wounded. Finding resistance unavailing, Gen. Sheaffe, with the British regulars, retreated towards Kingston, leaving the commanding officer of the militia, to make the best terms in his power. The Americans soon recovered from the shock, produced by the explo-

April 27.

York, Upper Canada, is attacked, and surrenders to the Americans.

sion, and proceeded, under Col. Pearce, to take possession of the enemy's barracks. The outlines of a capitulation were soon agreed on, and the Americans took possession of the town. The brave Pike survived his wounds but a few hours; but, like Wolfe at Quebec, he drew his last breath amidst the cheering shouts of victory. His dying head reposed upon the banner that had lately floated over the fortress which his valour had aided to conquer. It had been brought to him, and he requested it to be placed beneath him.

Gen. Dearborn in person, now took the command of the troops. The loss of the British was 90 killed, 200 wounded, and 300 prisoners, besides 500 militia, released upon parole. A great quantity of stores was likewise found here, as York was the naval and military depot for all Upper Canada. Gen. Sheaffe's baggage and papers fell into the hands of the Americans. In the legislative and executive chamber was found by the Americans, the disgraceful trophy of a human scalp, occupying the same place, with the mace and other emblems of royal authority.

On the 8th of May, Gen. Dearborn evacuated the capital of Upper Canada, and having crossed the lake, for the purpose of leaving the wounded at Sackett's Harbour, again set sail, and disembarked his troops at Niagara.

The army at Niagara having been reinforced, Gen. Dearborn re-embarked, and on the morning of the 27th of May, proceeded to attack fort George. The landing was warmly disputed by the British, under Col. Vincent, but the coolness and intrepidity which the American troops displayed, led on and encouraged by Gen. Boyd, soon compelled the enemy to give way in every direction. Com. Chauncey had made the most judicious arrangements for silencing their batteries near the point of landing. Col. Vincent, perceiving that the fort would soon become untenable, set fire to his magazine, spiked his guns, and abandoned the place, not, however, until he had sustained a loss of three hundred men. The loss of the Americans was seventeen killed, and forty-five wounded. The capture of fort Erie speedily followed that of fort George. Lieut. Col. Preston took possession of this fort on the 28th, it having been previously abandoned by the British, and the magazine blown up.

May 27.
Fort George sur-
renders to the
Americans, also
fort Erie.

The British governor had not been an idle spectator of these successes. Having arranged his plan of operation with Com. Yeo, the commander of the British fleet on lake Ontario, he embarked at Kings-

ton, on the 27th of May, appeared before Sackett's Harbour, on the 28th, and landed 1,200 men. Gen. Brown immediately rallied the militia, and compelled Sir George to abandon the enterprise and return to Canada.

May 28.
Attempt on
Sackett's Har-
bour.

After the fall of fort George and fort Erie, Col. St. Vincent had re

tired with his army to Burlington Heights, near the head of lake Ontario. He was pursued by a force which Gen. Dearborn had detached for the purpose, under generals Chandler and Winder. Col. St. Vincent, having reconnoitered their position, formed his plan of attack. At the dead of night, he stole unperceived upon the Americans, drove in the pickets, and with the roar of artillery, and the dreadful yell of the Indians, rushed upon the camp. A scene of confusion and carnage ensued, in which the Americans could not distinguish friend from foe. Gen. Chandler, noticing a party of men in apparent confusion, approached, and attempted to rally them; but they were British troops, and immediately secured him as their prisoner. Gen. Winder shared, by a like mistake, a similar fate. The Americans, however, maintained their post, and forced the enemy to retire. The loss of the British was supposed to exceed that of the Americans, and was probably between two and three hundred in killed and wounded. Col. Burns, on whom the command of the American force now devolved, finding himself in an embarrassing situation, from the capture of the two generals, and the failure of ammunition, retreated from Stony Creek, the place of the battle, to Forty Mile Creek, the former position of this army.

Action at Stony Creek.

June 5.

Generals Chandler and Winder captured.

The last operation on this scene of hostility, previous to the retreat of the Americans, was the unfortunate affair of Beaver Dams. On the 24th of June, Col. Børstler was ordered by Gen. Dearborn, to march from fort George, and disperse a body of the enemy, which had collected at this place. The Americans were attacked within two miles of Beaver Dams, and after an action, Colonel Børstler's ammunition being exhausted, he surrendered his whole detachment, which consisted of 570 men. Soon after, Gen. Dearborn received orders to retire from the command of the northern army, until his health should be restored; and the command at fort George devolved on Gen. Boyd.

June 24.

Action at Beaver Dams.

Com. Chauncey left Sackett's Harbour on the 27th of July, to cruise upon the lake. On arriving off Niagara, he learned that the British had a considerable quantity of stores at Burlington bay. Col. Scott volunteered his services to aid in their destruction. They set sail with about 200 infantry, but finding a force double their own strongly intrenched, and defended by eight pieces of cannon, they abandoned the attempt. They proceeded to York, took a few prisoners, and destroyed or carried away five pieces of cannon, eleven boats, and a considerable quantity of ammunition.

Expedition to Burlington bay

The autumn of this year witnessed the novel scene of a naval battle, on one of those inland seas which separate the possessions of the contending parties. The

Sept. 10.

Perry's victory on lake Erie.

American fleet, which had been wholly formed during the last summer, was under the command of Com. Oliver Hazard Perry. It now consisted of the Niagara and Lawrence, each mounting twenty-five guns, and several smaller vessels, carrying, on an average, two guns each. The enemy's fleet was considered of equal force. Commodore Barclay, the commander of the British squadron, was a veteran officer, while Commodore Perry was young, and without experience. The conflict commenced, on the part of the Americans, about 12 o'clock, and soon became general and desperate. Commodore Perry's flag ship, the Lawrence, being disabled, he embarked in an open boat, and amidst a shower of bullets, carried the ensign of command on board the Niagara, and once more bore down upon the enemy with the remainder of his fleet. The action was severe ; and at four o'clock, the whole British squadron, consisting of six vessels, carrying in all sixty-three guns, surrendered to the Americans.*

This success on lake Erie opened a passage to the territory which had been surrendered by Gen. Hull ; and Gen. Harrison lost no time in transporting the war thither. On the 23d of September, he landed his troops near fort Malden, but to his surprise, instead of an armed force, he met, at the entrance of the town, the matrons and maids of Amherstburg, who, in their best attire, had come forth to solicit the protection of the Americans. Gen. Proctor had previously evacuated the town, and burned the public storehouses and fort. The next day the Americans marched in pursuit of Proctor and his troops, and, on the 29th, entered and took possession of Detroit.

General Proctor had retired to the Moravian village on the Thames, about eighty miles from Detroit, his force, at this time, consisting of 2,000 men, including Indians, who composed more than half his army. He

Oct. 5. was overtaken by the American general on the 5th of October. The British army, although inferior in numbers, had the advantage of choosing their ground. They were strongly posted ; their left rested on the Thames, and was defended by artillery ; their right extended to a swamp, which run parallel to the river, and was supported by the brave Tecumseh and his warriors, who were stationed in a thick wood which skirted the morass. Gen. Harrison, placing great reliance on Col. Johnson's mounted regiment, ordered them to charge the enemy's centre, with the intention of penetrating their lines, and getting into their rear. The Kentuckians advanced valiantly to the charge, and so far succeeded, as to throw the enemy into confusion ; but their horses were unused to such perilous service

* In giving information of this victory to Gen. Harrison, Com. Perry says, " We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

and they failed to penetrate the British lines. In this situation they did not suffer themselves to be thrown back upon the advancing army, but wheeled to the right and left, fell upon the enemy's flanks, and poured upon them a destructive fire. The venerable Gov. Shelby led on his militia, and was found in the thickest of the fray. Col. Johnson, with his battalion, was encountered by the Indians under Tecumseh, who, led on by their chief, began the onset with great fury, and being encouraged by their leader, they fought with the most determined courage, until, in the heat of the contest, Tecumseh was slain. On perceiving his fall, the Indians immediately fled, and thus, the death of this savage chieftain* was the defeat of the whole army. Johnson also fell, but his wounds were not mortal. Proctor, perceiving that all was lost, fled from the field, with two hundred dragoons; and the remainder of his army immediately surrendered. Nineteen regulars were killed, fifty wounded, and six hundred made prisoners. The Indians left one hundred and twenty on the field. The American loss, in killed and wounded, was upwards of fifty. Among the trophies of the field, were six brass field-pieces, which had been surrendered by Hull; on two of which were inscribed the words, "Surrendered by Burgoyne, at Saratoga." Several of the Indian tribes now sent deputations to Gen. Harrison, and the Ottawas, Chippewas, Miamis, and Pottawattamies, made treaties of alliance, agreeing "to take hold of the same tomahawk with the Americans, and strike at all the enemies of the United States, whether they be British or Indian."

Gen. Harrison, having witnessed the accomplishment of his objects in Michigan, and Upper Canada, left Gen. Cass in command at Detroit, and embarked for Buffalo.

Proctor flees,
and his army
surrenders.

General Cass in
command at De-
troit.

* "This celebrated aboriginal warrior fell in the forty-fourth year of his age. In stature, he was above the middle size; extremely active, and capable of sustaining fatigue in an extraordinary degree. His carriage was erect and lofty—his motions quick—his eye penetrating—his visage stern, with an air of hauteur in his countenance, arising from an elevated pride of soul. His rule of war was neither to give nor accept quarter. He had been in almost every battle with the Americans; and received several wounds, and always sought the hottest of the fire. His ruling passion was glory; wealth was beneath his ambition, and although his plunderings and subsidies must have amounted to a large sum, he died poor. The Americans had a kind of ferocious pleasure in contemplating the contour of his features, which was majestic, even in death."

The Kentucky infantry, on their march homeward, collected the bleaching bones of their countrymen, massacred at Frenchtown, and mournfully deposited them in one common grave.

In the early part of this year, the bays of Chesapeake and Delaware were declared by the British government to be in a state of blockade. To enforce this edict, Admiral Warren was stationed off the American coast, and Rear Admiral Cockburn was sent up the Chesapeake, "to make the inhabitants and the government" says a British historian, "sensible of the danger of arousing the British nation."* A squadron, under Admiral Beresford, also entered the Delaware, and, on the 10th of April, proceeded to Lewistown. The British demanded provisions of the inhabitants, which being refused, they attacked the village, but after a bombardment of several days, were compelled to retire. Other attempts were made by them to land their troops, but they always met with a spirited and successful opposition. After destroying some of the smaller American vessels, the squadron sailed for the Bermudas, where Admiral Warren, with his fleet, was preparing for an attack upon the sea coast during the summer.

Admiral Cockburn carries on a predatory warfare on the shores of the Chesapeake. Admiral Cockburn was, in the meantime, prosecuting a most disgraceful warfare in the Chesapeake. He took possession of several small islands in the bay, and from these made descents upon the neighbouring shores, whenever, and wherever there was a probability of finding the inhabitants unprepared and defenceless. The militia were hastily collected, and stationed along the coast, and though they often repulsed the enemy, yet their opposition was of but little avail against hundreds of the marauders.

May. The first attacks were upon the small villages of Villages burned. Frenchtown and Havre de Grace. They took possession of these towns, and the stores in them which could not be removed, were wantonly destroyed. They then proceeded to lay waste the adjacent country. Their route was marked by devastation and plun-

* See Baines' History. This writer is evidently ashamed of these piratical excesses of his countrymen, so unworthy the character of a civilized nation. He remarks, "This desultory and piratical species of warfare, though always a favourite topic of British declamation, seldom leads to any important results. Its successes are superficial and transient; and though the suffering and alarm it inflicts, may, in some measure, dispose the minds of the people of a district to peace; even this effect must be greatly counteracted, by the hatred and irritation which it is always sure to excite."

The British have ever found this hatred and irritation the only fruit of such warfare in America. They found it in the war of the revolution, and in the war of 1812; and they also found, that this irritation produced ten-fold exertion in carrying on the war. It is, therefore, to be hoped, that these considerations will, in the event of a future war, prevent their resorting to such barbarian measures.

der. Farm houses and private dwellings were sacrificed to their thirst for spoil ; and upon the inhabitants they committed the most disgraceful outrages. On the 16th of May, they returned to their fleet.

Their next descent was upon Fredericktown and Georgetown, situated nearly opposite to each other, on the Sassafras river ; and in these places they committed their wonted excesses.

Not long after, Admiral Warren appeared in the bay, with his fleet reinforced and carrying 2,000 troops, under Sir Sidney Beckwith. On receiving intelligence of this force, Commodore Cassin made arrangements for opposing them. A frigate was stationed at the mouth of Elizabeth river, on which Norfolk is situated, and 10,000 Virginia militia were collected near this place.

On the 22d of June, an attempt was made by 4,000 British troops on Craney's island, which was the only obstacle to a direct attack on Norfolk. While their landing was opposed by the officers of the frigate, another party attempted to land on the main shore ; but here they were met by the Virginia militia, and thus they were forced to abandon the attempt.

June 22.

Attempt on Craney's Island.

On the 25th, Cockburn and Beckwith directed their forces, amounting to 2,500, against the village of Hampton. At first they were compelled to withdraw, by the spirited exertions of 400 militia, who were stationed at the place ; but another effort was made, and they gained possession of the town. Their troops were chiefly of the vilest description, being taken from the French armies in Spain, and they committed outrages which their less savage allies would have been ashamed to perpetrate.

June 25.

Hampton destroyed.

To the north of the Chesapeake these shameful excesses were not committed, though the effects of the war were felt in the strict blockade which was kept up at New-York. Three American warlike vessels on leaving that port in May, were chased into New London harbour, and there blockaded for several months, by the British fleet, under Commodore Hardy.

New-York and New London harbours blockaded.

SECTION VII.

ALTHOUGH Commodore Chauncey had not been inactive on lake Ontario, still he had failed to bring Sir James Yeo to a decisive engagement. This the latter skilfully and successfully manœvered to avoid, his squadron being inferior in force but superior in sailing to

Oct. 5. that of his antagonist. On the 5th of October, however, Commodore Chauncey encountered a fleet of seven sail, which was bound for Kingston, with troops and provisions. Five of these he captured, one of them was burned, and the remaining vessel escaped.

Chauncey captures a British squadron. General Wilkinson, who had commanded the army on the Mississippi, was this year appointed to the command of the army of the centre, and arrived at Sackett's Harbour on the 20th of August. The chief object of his instructions from the government, was the taking of Kingston; yet the reduction of Canada, by attacking Montreal, appears to have been the ultimate object of the remainder of the campaign.

Wilkinson appointed to command the army of the centre. The forces on which Wilkinson depended for the accomplishment of this object, were an army of 5,000, at fort George; a force of 2,000 under General Lewis, at Sackett's Harbour; and the victorious troops of General Harrison, whom General Wilkinson expected would unite with his army, and proceed with him down the St. Lawrence. General Hampton, who had been appointed to command the northern army, was to penetrate by the way of Champlain, and form a junction at some place on that river. To aid in this project, General Armstrong, who had lately been appointed secretary of war, arrived at Sackett's Harbour on the 5th of September. General Wilkinson waited on him for orders; and notwithstanding his former instructions, he now favoured that general's proceeding immediately to Montreal, without attacking Kingston. Grenadier Island, near the northern outlet of lake Ontario, was fixed upon as the place of rendezvous. Owing to tempestuous weather, the troops did not arrive before the last of October; and on the 30th they set sail.

Expedition against Montreal. On the 6th of November, they arrived within a few miles of Prescott. The stores were landed on the Canadian side, and the troops under General Boyd disembarked, to proceed by land in order to avoid the fire of the British batteries. The flotilla under General Brown, sustained a heavy cannonade on passing the fortress.

The British governor had anticipated the designs of the American government, in sending this force against Canada, and had ordered a corps of observation from Kingston, to follow the movements of Gen. Wilkinson's army. With this force they continually menaced his rear. Col. Macomb, with a select corps of about 1,200 men, was detached to disperse the militia, who were collected on the shores. On the 8th, he was reinforced by General Brown. On the 10th, having arrived at a long and dangerous rapid, the troops, excepting a sufficient number to navigate the boats, were ordered to march under General Boyd, while General Brown was detached still further down the river.

Generals Wilkinson and Lewis were both confined to the boats by indisposition. On the 11th, the troops arrived at Williamsburg, and were about to re-embark, when the enemy were discovered in their rear. Gen. Boyd, who was joined by generals Covington and Swartout with their brigades, marched upon them in three columns, and commenced an attack. The action was sustained for more than three hours with great bravery, the adverse lines alternately yielding and advancing, when, by a movement of the British, the American infantry, who had been left to cover their retreat, were dislodged, and the enemy occupied the field. The loss of the Americans was 339; that of the British, 180. The American force engaged, did not exceed 1,200, while that of the enemy is estimated at 2,000.

Nov. 11.
Battle of Williamsburg.

The next day, communications were received from Gen. Hampton, in which he declined joining his forces to those of Gen. Wilkinson, stating that his stock of provisions was not sufficient for both armies; he intimated, however, that he should retire to the Plattsburg road, and would join him lower down the river. A council of war was now called by Wilkinson, who decided to abandon the attack on Montreal, and to go into winter quarters at French Mills.

Wilkinson abandons the expedition.

In the meantime, General Hampton, with an army of 4,000 men, encamped at Plattsburg. He received orders for invading the enemy's country, by the way of Champlain, and took post at that place, on the 25th of September. Here he met an order to proceed to Chateaugay, and penetrate to Montreal, by the way of Chateaugay river. Leaving his encampment at Chateaugay Four Corners, on the 21st of October, he crossed the line, and proceeded down the river to Ormstown. Here he ascertained, that about 600 of the British occupied a position six miles below him, on his route to Montreal. For the purpose of destroying this force, he detached Col. Purdy, on the night of the 25th, with 2,000 men. For the want of proper guides, Purdy was unable to accomplish his object. A little after sunrise, on the morning of the 26th, within one mile of the position of the enemy, the other division of the army, under Hampton, overtook Purdy, being, however, on the opposite side of the river. Gen. Hampton placed the greater part of his force under Gen. Izard, with orders to attack the enemy immediately, which he accordingly did, and after some unsuccessful attempts to dislodge them, he retired from the field of battle. During this attack upon the left bank, Col. Purdy remained on the right bank, without any exertions, on his part, to aid Gen. Izard, his men being exhausted by the last night's march. The enemy discovering them, supposed them to be only a small detachment,

Hampton marches from Plattsburg to join Wilkinson.

Oct. 26.
Affair of Chateaugay.

sent over for guarding the bank of the river, and sent a few troops for the purpose of capturing them. Without being observed, they had gained his rear, and commenced an attack, when his whole division, without firing a musket, fled to the river, in the greatest confusion. The British finding their force greater than they had expected, retreated. The American army encamped on the night of the 26th, and remained until the 28th, when they returned to Four Corners, where Hampton despatched to Gen. Wilkinson the letter which has been mentioned. Receiving the intelligence that the attack on Montreal was

Hampton retires
to Plattsburg,
and is succeeded
by Gen. Izard.

abandoned, he took up his line of march for Plattsburg, where he established his winter quarters. He soon resigned his commission, and was succeeded in command by Gen. Izard.

Harrison arrives
at Buffalo, and
proceeds to
Sackett's Har-
bour.

Gen. Harrison did not arrive at Buffalo, until the 24th of October, and was not ready to join Gen. Wilkinson, until he had gone into winter quarters. He then proceeded to Sackett's Harbour, leaving the Niagara fron-

tier defenceless, except that a few militia remained, under General M'Clure, who commanded at fort George. Sir George Prevost, being relieved from his apprehensions of an attack on Montreal, ordered his forces, under Gen. Vincent and Gen. Drummond, to proceed to

Dec. 10.
Fort George de-
stroyed, and
Newark burned.

Niagara. Gen. M'Clure, fearing their approach, blew up the fort, and crossed the Niagara. Misunderstanding the orders which he had received from government, he caused, previous to his departure, the village of Newark

to be burned; and although the act was immediately disavowed by the government, yet the British took measures for its retaliation. On the

Dec. 19.
The British took
possession of
fort Niagara.

19th of December, 400 of their troops, under Col. Murray, crossed at Niagara, and surprising the sentries of the fort, obtained immediate possession. The garrison, consisting of 300, were mostly put to the sword. The

commander, Capt. Leonard, was absent at his farm, about two miles distant, and was consequently accused of treachery; but a court martial acquitted him of this charge.

The British now increased their forces, and under General Riall proceeded to Lewistown. Here they were opposed by the militia under Major Young, who, after maintaining his ground for some time, was at last compelled to retreat. Major Mallory, from fort Schollosser, with

They destroy the
villages on the
frontier.

forty Canadian volunteers, made a gallant resistance, but the exertions of a few scattered troops were ineffectual against a large body of British regulars and 700 Indians.

They laid waste Lewistown, Manchester, and the Tuscarora villages.

In the meantime, General Hall advanced from Batavia with all the

forces which he could collect, for the defence of the frontier. On the night of the 29th December, the British, under General Riall crossed at Black Rock. Owing to the darkness of the night, the militia were unable to repulse their attacks. General Hall arrived from Buffalo early on the morning of the 30th; at the same time a large division of British and Indians were crossing the river. They effected a landing, notwithstanding the destructive fire of the Americans. General Hall was driven from his batteries and pursued to Buffalo, a distance of two miles. Here he attempted again to face the enemy, when, of 2,000 militia, only 600 could be prevailed upon to stand their ground. They fled to the woods, and many of them were cut off by the enemy. The villages of Buffalo and Black Rock were set on fire the same day, and the British proceeded into the interior, laying waste the whole of the country on the American side of the Niagara for several miles.

They cross at
Black Rock, and
the Americans
defeat.

Black Rock and
Buffalo burned.

Having given a sketch of the military operations of the campaign, and as connected with these the naval affairs of the inland seas; a view of the engagements which occurred on the ocean during 1813, next follows. The first affair of public ships was that between the Peacock and Hornet, and it was in its termination the sixth successive naval victory by which America vindicated her equal right with Britain, to traverse, unmolested, the great highway of nations. The action occurred on the 23d of February, off the coast of Brazil.

The United States' ship Hornet, was commanded by Capt. Lawrence, and the British sloop of war Peacock, by Capt. Peake. The action lasted but fifteen minutes. The loss of the British in killed and wounded was about forty, that of the Americans five. The Peacock unfortunately sunk with thirteen of her crew, while engaged in removing the wounded. She had on board three impressed American seamen, who, notwithstanding their earnest solicitations, had been compelled to fight against their country. One was killed in the engagement, and two were found among the prisoners.

Feb. 23

The Hornet cap-
tures the Pea-
cock.

In the career of naval triumph the Americans now suffered a severe check. On the first of June, as the United States' frigate Chesapeake was lying in Boston harbour, the British frigate Shannon, commanded by Capt. Broke, appeared in sight, off the harbour, inviting her to a contest. Captain Lawrence, who for his gallant services in the affair of the Peacock, had been promoted to the command of the Chesapeake, felt himself bound in honour to accept the challenge. His officers and crew were strangers to him, and the seamen were in a state of dissatisfaction on account of not having received their pay. Lawrence, however, put

June 1.

The Chesa-
peake captured
by the Shannon.

to sea, and prepared for action. A furious engagement ensued, and in a few minutes every officer on board the Chesapeake capable of taking the command, was either killed or wounded. Captain Lawrence received a mortal wound, and the Chesapeake being much disabled, he was asked "if the colours should be struck;" he replied "No, they shall wave while I live." Becoming delirious, he continually cried, "Don't give up the ship." At the moment of his being carried below, Captain Broke succeeded in boarding the Chesapeake, and the British, not the Americans, lowered her colours. They did not, however, achieve this victory without loss. They had twenty-four killed and fifty-six wounded. The loss of the Americans was seventy killed and sixty-three wounded. The Shannon carried her prize into Halifax, and there the heroic Lawrence, who had survived his defeat but four days, was interred with every mark of honourable distinction. His pall was borne by the oldest captains in the British navy, who, with the generous sympathy of the brave, mourned that a brother hero had fallen. A victory over an American frigate was considered a cause of great exultation by the British, and Captain Broke received honours such as had never before been paid to the conqueror of so small a force.

Aug. 14.
The Argus captured by the Pelican.

Another naval disaster soon followed the loss of the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, the United States' sloop of war, Argus, commanded by Lieut. Allen, was captured, after an action of nearly an hour, in St. George's channel, by the British sloop of war, Pelican, commanded by Captain Maples. The brave Allen was mortally wounded early in the action. The loss of the Americans was forty, that of the British only eight. Lieutenant Allen died in England. He was treated with every degree of attention, and the generous Britons buried him as they would have buried a brave officer of their own nation.

Sept. 4.
The Enterprize captures the Boxer.

On the 4th of September, the American seamen were again victorious. The brig Enterprize, sailing from Portland harbour, fell in, the same day, with the British brig Boxer. Capt. Blyth, the commander, when he descried the American, fired a shot as a challenge, and raised three British ensigns, which he caused to be nailed to the mast. Soon after the action commenced, Lieutenant Burrows, who commanded the American brig, was mortally wounded, but he refused to be carried below. In his last agonies he requested that his flag might never be struck. Lieutenant M'Call, on whom the command devolved, gave orders to board the enemy; but Capt. Blyth, like his brave antagonist, had fallen; the British brig had become unmanageable, and the crew cried out for quarter. They could not pull down their colours, for they were nailed to the mast. The bodies of the commanders were received at Portland with tokens of the highest respect: masters of vessels rowed them ashore with the

funereal stroke of the oar, while minute guns were fired by the vessels in the harbour ; and their last obsequies were performed by the civil and military authorities of the place.

On the 26th of September, Com. Rodgers returned from a long cruise, in which he had circumnavigated the British isles, and explored the Atlantic. He did not gain any signal victory, but he rendered essential service to his country, by harassing the British commerce ; having captured twelve merchant vessels, and taken many prisoners.

Cruise of Com.
Rodgers.

In the meantime causes were operating, which resulted in a bloody war with the Creek Indians. The lands of the Creeks lying within the territory of the United States, were secured to them by the national power. Great exertions had been made by benevolent individuals, as well as by the government, to instruct them in the arts of civilized life. These exertions had been attended with considerable success ; and they were advancing to a more refined state of society. Their early habits and prejudices were not, however, entirely rooted out ; and some of them wished to return to their former state. A visit from Tecumseh, in 1812, had tended to increase this disposition. This highly gifted savage used all the powers of his eloquence to persuade them to shake off the oppressions of civilized life, and return to their former condition of wild and fearless independence. A civil war raged among them. The party, hostile to the United States, increased, and they commenced a harassing and vexatious warfare against the whites. Alarmed at the threatening aspect of affairs, the settlers in the most exposed situations had taken refuge in forts which were erected for their security. No event of any importance, however, occurred, until the summer of eighteen hundred and thirteen.

Creek war.

Fort Mims had been erected in the Tensau settlement, nearly opposite to fort Stoddert. This fort was now filled with the inhabitants of the surrounding settlements. Maj. Beasley, the commander, had received repeated warnings of an intended attack on the fort by the Indians, but had delayed to make preparations for its security. On the 30th of August, at noon-day, the fort was surprised by about six hundred Indians. At first, the garrison stood their ground, and repulsed the savages ; but the Indians returning, drove the besieged into the houses, and set fire to them. A dreadful massacre followed. Only seventeen, out of three hundred men, women, and children, escaped to bear the sorrowful tidings to the surrounding inhabitants.

Aug. 30.

Destruction of
fort Mims.

A desire of revenge spread through the neighbouring states. Two thousand men from Tennessee, under Gen. Jackson, and five hundred under General Coffee, joined their forces on the 12th of October, and marched to the Ten Islands, on the Coosa river, where Gen. Jackson,

who took the command, established his head quarters. On the 2d of November, he detached General Coffee, with 900 cavalry and mounted riflemen, to destroy a body of the Creeks at Tallushatches.

Nov. 2. Creeks defeated at Tallushatches. A desperate engagement ensued, which ended in a complete victory to the Americans. Two hundred savages were found dead, and eighty-four women and children were taken prisoners. Gen. Coffee's loss, in killed and wounded, was forty-six.

At Talladega. On the 7th, General Jackson, hearing that a party of friendly Creeks, at Talladega, were surrounded, and in danger of being destroyed, marched with 1,200 men to their relief. Having made the most judicious arrangements for surrounding the enemy, he advanced, and commenced an attack. A bloody battle followed, in which two hundred and ninety of the Indian warriors were found slain. Fifteen whites were killed, and eighty-five wounded.

The militia from Tennessee, under Gen. Cocke, were encamped at fort Armstrong. On the 11th of November, he detached Gen. White, with a portion of his army, against the Hillabee towns.

Nov. 18. Destruction of the Hillabee towns. After burning two Indian villages on their route, they entered the towns at daylight, on the morning of the eighteenth, where they found about three hundred inhabitants; sixty of whom, being warriors, were killed, and the remainder made prisoners.

About the last of November, the governor of Georgia sent General Floyd to protect the frontiers of that state. With 950 militia, and nearly 400 friendly Indians, he marched into the most flourishing part of the Creek country. On the 29th, his troops were drawn up for battle at Autossee, their sacred ground, to approach which, the superstitious natives considered as inevitable destruction to any white man. The Indians were collected from eight towns for its defence, and fought with desperate bravery; but they were defeated, and their towns, consisting of four hundred houses, were burned. Two hundred of their warriors were killed, among whom were the Autossee and Tallasee kings. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was fifty; and among the latter was Gen. Floyd.

Nov. 29. Indians defeated at Autossee. The Indians were collected from eight towns for its defence, and fought with desperate bravery; but they were defeated, and their towns, consisting of four hundred houses, were burned. Two hundred of their warriors were killed, among whom were the Autossee and Tallasee kings. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was fifty; and among the latter was Gen. Floyd.

At Eccanachaca. On the 23d of December, Gen. Claiborne, who commanded the Mississippi volunteers, gained an important victory over the Creeks, under their famous prophet, Weatherford, at Eccanachaca, or Holy Ground, on the Alabama river.

The term of service for the Tennessee militia had now expired, and becoming mutinous, they were disbanded, and ordered to march for their homes.

On the 14th of January, Gen. Jackson was reinforced by eight hundred volunteers. Their term of service was only sixty days ; and as fort Armstrong was threatened with an attack, and Gen. Floyd was about to enter the enemy's country, he determined to make a diversion of the Indian forces, by marching against a considerable body who were collected near the mouth of Emucfau creek. On the 17th, he took up his line of march, and on the 18th, was joined at Talladega, by between three and four hundred friendly Indians. On the 21st, appearances indicating their approach to an Indian settlement, and expecting an attack, he formed his men at night in order of battle. At dawn, on the morning of the 22d, he was assaulted on the left flank ; but after a severe contest of half an hour the Indians were repulsed. Gen. Jackson then acted on the offensive, and made, with great vigour, a charge upon the enemy's lines. Gen. Coffee attacked their left, while two hundred friendly Indians co-operated with him on the right. The savages being unable to resist, fled to their post, and about fifty of them were slain. On the 23d, Gen. Jackson commenced his return to fort Strother. On the same night, he encamped at Enotachopco ; and the next day, his army were attacked in a narrow defile by the Indians, whom they repulsed, after a severe contest. The loss of the Americans, in these several engagements, was twenty killed, and seventy-five wounded.

1814.

Gen. Jackson
defeats the
Creeks at Emuc-
fau and Enota-
chopco.

On the 27th of January, Gen. Floyd was assailed in his camp, west of the Chatahouchie, by a numerous body of savages ; but a steady and incessant fire from the artillery and riflemen, compelled them to retire. Gen. Floyd was severely wounded, and many of his soldiers killed.

Gen. Floyd at-
tacked.

The hostile spirit of the Creeks, notwithstanding their numerous defeats, still remained unsubdued. Determined to make a desperate effort to prevent the destruction of their tribe, they strongly fortified the bend of the Tallapoosa, called by the Indians Tohopeka, and by the whites, Horse-shoe-bend. Nature and art had rendered this a place of great security. The Indians had erected a breastwork, from five to eight feet high, across the peninsula, thus inclosing nearly one hundred acres of ground. This could not be approached, without exposure to a double and cross fire from the Indians who lay behind. About one thousand warriors had collected on this spot. Here Gen. Jackson determined to attack them. On the 26th of March, he encamped within six miles of the place, and having learned that the shore was lined with canoes, he sent Gen. Coffee to the opposite side of the river, to surround the Bend, in such a manner that none could escape by crossing the river. With the remainder of his force, he attacked the fortifications in front. A brisk fire was kept up for two hours, when General

Coffee crossed the river to his aid, and commenced a spirited fire upon the enemy, who lay behind the breastwork ; but they were still unsubdued. Gen. Jackson then determined to storm their fortifications. The regulars, led on by Col. Williams and Maj. Montgomery, advanced to the charge. An obstinate contest ensued ; in which the combatants fought through the port-holes, musket to musket. At this time, Maj. Montgomery, leaping on the wall, called to his men to mount and follow. Scarcely had he spoken, when a ball struck him upon the head, and he fell lifeless to the ground. Yet the Americans obeyed his command, and, following his example, soon gained the opposite side of the works. Though the Creeks fought with a bravery which their desperate situation alone could have inspired, yet they were entirely defeated, and cut to pieces. Five hundred and fifty were killed on the peninsula, and many were drowned or shot, in attempting to cross the river. Gen. Jackson's loss, including the friendly Indians, was fifty-four killed, and one hundred and fifty-six wounded. This victory ended in the submission of the remaining warriors, and terminated the Creek war. Among those who threw themselves upon the mercy of their victors, was Weatherford, who was equally distinguished for his talents and cruelty. "I am in your power," said he, "do with me what you please. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely. There was a time when I had a choice. I have none now ; every hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors to battle ; but I cannot animate the dead. They can no longer hear my voice ; their bones are at Tallushatches, Talladega, Emucfau, and Tohopeka. While there was a chance of success, I never supplicated peace ; but my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation and myself."

Aug. 9. During the summer, a treaty of peace was concluded with the conquered Creeks, on conditions advantageous to the United States. Gen. Jackson returned to Tennessee, and was soon after appointed to succeed Gen. Wilkinson in the command of the forces at New-Orleans.

SECTION VIII.

1813. DURING the spring of 1813, Alexander, emperor of Russia, with a laudable zeal to spare mankind from the desolations of war, offered his mediation in the quarrel between the United States and Great Britain. On the part of the

republic, the offer was promptly met, and three among the most highly honoured of her citizens, John Quincy Adams, Albert Gallatin, and James A. Bayard, were despatched to Russia, to meet and negotiate with such commissioners as Great Britain might choose to appoint. That power, however, had declined the mediation of Alexander, but offered to treat for peace directly with the United States. In pursuance of this proposition, to which the American government acceded, Messrs. Adams, Gallatin, and Bayard, in the month of August, proceeded to Ghent, the place of meeting agreed on, and there met Lord Gambier, Henry Golbourn, and William Adams, commissioners on the part of Great Britain. On the part of America, Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell were added to the gentlemen already mentioned.

On account of the critical state of the country, con-
gress deemed it expedient to hold an extra session ; and, Congress holds
an extra session.
accordingly, met on the 24th of May, 1813. Their most urgent business was to provide means of replenishing the exhausted treasury ; and, notwithstanding the clamours of the party opposed to the war, they proceeded with firmness and decision in the execution of their duty. After considerable debate, they agreed on a system of internal duties, and laws were passed, laying taxes on lands and houses, distilled liquors, refined sugars, retailers' licenses, carriages, sales at auction, and bank notes. By these means, it was expected to raise a revenue of five millions and a half of dollars, and a loan of seven millions and a half was authorized. Congress adjourned on the 2d of August.

On the 2d of December, they convened again, as usual. Among other important subjects, embraced in President's mes-
sage.
the president's message, was that concerning the right of expatriation, on which Great Britain and America had been so long at issue, and from which the most tragical consequences were, at that period, apprehended. Forty persons, natives of Britain, but who, by a long residence, had become naturalized in America, had been taken in arms against the British nation, and were sent to Great Britain, to undergo a trial for treason against their country. The American government, feeling itself bound to protect them, had put in close confinement an equal number of British soldiers, with a notification, that if violence was done, the same, in kind and degree, should be inflicted in return. In retaliation for this step, the British government put in confinement, with a similar threat, double the number of American officers of the lower grades. This measure had also been retaliated, and an equal number of British officers selected. In this alarming position did the affair stand, at the delivery of the president's message. The subject was, however, adjusted, by the exchange of all prisoners, except the first forty, who had been sent for trial ; and no pro-

ceedings having been instituted against them, the American government reserved a right to retaliate, in case any violence should hereafter be done them.

Dec.

Embargo and
non-importation
act passed.

Another message was soon after received from the president, recommending, with a view to deprive the enemy of supplies from the ports, an embargo upon exports ; and with a design to protect the American commerce, a more complete prohibition of British manufactures. These measures, after the most spirited debates, were adopted by congress, but were considered, by the opposition, as more annoying to America than to her foe, and condemned as unconstitutional and oppressive. These commercial restrictions were not, however, of long continuance. Mighty revolutions were taking place in Europe, and these changed the policy of America. Her measures had been taken with a view to withdraw her commerce from both belligerents, and carry on against them offensive operations, in case her rights were not regarded. The result of this was, as we have seen, peace with France, and war with England. America had continued her restrictions with Britain, because the power of Buonaparte closed against the commerce of that nation, so many of the ports of Europe, that it was detrimental to her to be deprived of that of America also. But the fallen Buonaparte was now a power-

1814.

April.

Embargo and
non-importation
act discontinued.

less exile on a little island in the Mediterranean : and the ports of Europe were open to England. Under these circumstances, the American government judged it expedient to repeal their restrictive laws ; and accordingly, in the month of April, the embargo and non-importation act were both discontinued.

Bills passed for
the relief of the
army.

The condition of the army at this time required and received the attention of congress. A bill was passed early in the session, giving to those who should enlist for five years, or during the war, the unprecedented bounty of one hundred and twenty-four dollars ; and to any person who should procure an able bodied recruit, was given further the sum of eight dollars. Little addition was, during this session, made to the naval force. An appropriation of five hundred thousand dollars was however made, for the building of one or more floating batteries, to be propelled by steam.

Gen. Wilkinson had remained inactive at French Mills, until early in February, 1814 ; when having received orders from the secretary of war, he detached Gen. Brown, with 2,000 troops, to the Niagara frontier ; and having destroyed his barracks, he retired to Plattsburg.

Stores at Malone
destroyed.

The enemy, taking advantage of this movement, on the 21st of February, made an incursion as far as Malone, and destroyed the arsenal and public stores there kept, which had belonged to the cantonment of French Mills.

Movements of Gen. Wilkinson, which had the appearance of an attempt again to invade Canada, induced 2,000 of the British, under Major Hancock, to fortify themselves at La Colle Mill, near the river Sorel. Gen. Wilkinson advanced, on the 30th day of March, for the purpose of dislodging them. Having dispersed skirmishing parties of the British, he arrived at La Colle, and so arranged his troops, as to cover the guns of a small battery, and likewise to cut off the retreat of the enemy. The Americans now commenced a cannonade, during which, a sortie was made from the building, which ended in the repulse of the assailants. Finding this battery insufficient to penetrate the thick stone walls* of the mill, Wilkinson retired with his forces, having lost one hundred in killed and wounded. Such a succession of unsuccessful measures brought public censure upon this general. He was tried before a court martial at Troy, New-York, but nominally acquitted of the charges brought against him.

March 31.
Affair at La
Colle.

The whole British force of Lower Canada now withdrew from the St. Lawrence, and were stationed near St. Johns, for securing the entrance of their fleet into lake Champlain. During the autumn and winter, Thomas Macdonough, the American commodore on this station, had laboured with great industry to provide a naval force on lake Champlain, equal to that of the enemy. The flotilla was lying in the Otter river, at Vergennes; and it was the object of the British to destroy it, before it should make its appearance on the lake. Apprised of this, Commodore Macdonough caused a battery to be erected at the mouth of the river. On the 12th of May, the British fleet entered the lake, and were repulsed in an attack upon this battery by water. They were also unsuccessful in attempting to gain the rear of the battery by land, being driven off by a detachment of Vermont militia. Thus repulsed, they abandoned their object, and moved down the lake.

May.
Attempt to de-
stroy the Ameri-
can flotilla on
lake Champlain.

On lake Ontario, both the Americans and British were actively employed in constructing large ships, before again contending on its waters for supremacy, which, however, at this time leaned to the side of the British. They attacked several places on the American shore, and made attempts, which were generally unsuccessful, to destroy the unfinished ships, and the stores which were to furnish them. Oswego

* Gen. Wilkinson, in his report, states, that an eighteen pounder, which had been taken by the troops for the purpose of battering down the mill, was left on the way, on account of the badness of the roads. I have been orally informed, by gentlemen of high respectability, that the cause of its stopping was the sudden discovery of the artillerists, that a mistake had been made in respect to the ball, and that twenty-four, instead of eighteen pound shot had been taken; and further, that in attempting to batter down the building by the twelve pounder which was carried, it was found, that by another mistake, this piece was provided with field charges, instead of battering charges.

was a deposit for naval stores. It was defended by a fort, which mounted only five guns, and was garrisoned by 500 men, under Col. Mitchell. On the 5th of May, the British fleet, with 1,500 troops, under Gen. Drummond, appeared before it, but could not effect a landing. On the 6th, they renewed the attempt, and landed their men. Col. Mitchell, after maintaining his ground for half an hour, retired to the falls of Oswego, about twelve miles distant, to which place he had caused the stores to be removed. Destroying the bridge in his rear, the British were cut off from their object, and evacuated the town. The fleet returned to Kingston, leaving only a few gun boats on the lake.

Shortly after, Major Appling and Capt. Woolsey were appointed to convey the naval stores from Oswego to Sackett's Harbour. On the 28th of May, when off Sandy Creek, sixteen miles southwest of Sackett's Harbour, perceiving themselves discovered by the enemy's boats, they entered the creek. Here they landed, and formed an ambuscade. The British followed, were completely surprised, and surrendered after an action of ten minutes. One hundred and thirty-three of the enemy were taken prisoners.

The Americans had now completed the *Superior*, a vessel capable of mounting sixty-four guns. Com. Chauncey soon after fitted her out, and sailed in view of Kingston; but Sir James Yeo did not choose to hazard an engagement until his own vessel, of equal size, should be completed.

At the commencement of this year, the Americans were in possession of all their former territory at the west, except fort Mackinaw.

Feb. On the 21st of February, Captain Holmes was detached from Detroit, with 180 men, to dislodge a party of British who were stationed on the river Thames, about two days' march from that place. When within fifteen miles of their position, he received intelligence that about 300 of the enemy were within one hour's march of him. He immediately retired five miles, to a more favourable position, and sent forward a small body of rangers to discover their strength; but they returned, followed by the British. Wishing to draw Capt. Holmes from his position, they feigned an attack, and then retreated. He followed for five miles, when he found the main army preparing for action. He hastened back to his former position, and being attacked on all sides, a severe contest followed. The Americans gallantly defended themselves for an hour, when the British ordered a retreat. The loss of the Americans was only six killed and wounded, while that of their enemy was sixty-nine.

During the early part of this year, Great Britain suffered the war with America to languish; but when peace was restored to Europe, she directed her military and naval force with new vigour to the pro-

secution of the contest. Two distinct systems appear to have been determined on in the British cabinet; one, having for its object the invasion of the sea coast, and the other, the protection of Canada, and the conquest of so much of the adjoining territory as might guard that province from future danger. To effect these objects, fourteen thousand men, who had fought under the Duke of Wellington, were embarked at Bordeaux for Canada; and, at the same time, a strong naval force, with an adequate number of troops, was directed against the maritime frontier of the United States, to maintain a strict blockade, and ravage the whole coast from Maine to Georgia.

14,000 British
troops sent over.

The idea had hitherto prevailed among the British, that the northern states might easily be induced to break off their alliance with the other states, and again become a part of their empire; while they considered the southern states as being more firmly attached to the government, and consequently more difficult to subdue.* Hence the northern sea-coast experienced little molestation until the spring of 1814, when the British here commenced their system of warfare, by ascending the Connecticut river to Petti-

British ascend
Connecticut
river.

paug, otherwise called Essex, where they destroyed shipping, to the value of two hundred thousand dollars.

SECTION IX.

GENERAL BROWN, conducting, as has been related, 2,000 of the army of Gen. Wilkinson, from French Mills towards the Niagara frontier, stopped at Sackett's Harbour. Here his force consisted of two brigades; the first, under Gen. Scott, the second, under Gen. Ripley. These able officers were diligently occupied during the first part of the campaign in disciplining their troops, and preparing them for action.

* On this subject, we bring a British historian to speak for his nation. "After the fall of Napoleon, it was held in this country," says Baines, "with a lamentable ignorance of the real state of the feelings and energies of the United States, that Britain, so long the undisputed mistress of the ocean, would soon be able to sweep from the seas the ships of America; and that those troops, which had acquired so much glory when contending with the veteran armies of Europe, would no sooner show themselves on the western side of the Atlantic, than the panic-struck soldiers of the United States would be driven far within their own frontiers. These pleasing illusions were heightened by the hope, that England would soon be able to dictate peace in the capital of the republic; or at least, that the splendour of British triumphs, and the pressure of American embarrassments, would induce and encourage the inhabitants of the northern states, to form a separate government, under the protection of the crown of Great Britain, if not actually under the sway of her sceptre."

In June, Gen. Brown marched his army to Buffalo, expecting to invade Canada. Here were added to his army Towson's artillery, and a corps of volunteers, commanded by Gen. Porter, making, in the

July. whole, about 3,500 men. On the second and third of July, they crossed the Niagara, and immediately invested fort Erie, where the garrison, amounting to 100 men, surrendered without resistance.

General Brown crosses the Niagara, and takes fort Erie.

On the 4th, the brigade under Gen. Scott, with Townson's artillery, advanced from fort Erie along the bank of the Niagara, to where it is intersected by a small brook, called Street's Creek, which falls into the river from the southwest. Here, being within a mile and a half of the enemy, he halted. Gen. Brown, with the remaining brigade, arrived at the same place at midnight, and Gen. Porter, with the volunteers, at sunrise. The British, 3,000 strong, commanded by Gen. Riall, occupied a strong position at the mouth of the Chippewa. These were a portion of the troops, which, as has been remarked, since the pacification of Europe, Great Britain had sent to conquer America. The camp of the Americans being annoyed by flying parties of the enemy, Gen. Porter, with 800 volunteers and Indians, and 80 regulars, under Capt. M'Donald, by the orders of Gen. Brown, advanced from the rear, and taking a southerly direction along the creek, surprised and attacked a body of Indians, about two miles from the American camp. The Indians retreated, skirmishing towards the British entrenchment. The noise of the firing brought a large reinforcement to the Indians; and the enemy, in their turn, obliged Gen. Porter, after a warm engagement, to retire.

July 5. It was now found that the main body of the British were advancing, and Gen. Brown put his whole camp in motion. Gen. Ripley was sent to the left, to the aid of Gen. Porter, while Gen. Scott, crossing the creek, drew up his brigade in order of battle, to receive the charge of the king's regiment, and that of the royal Scots. They outnumbered the republican troops more than one third; and they were the veterans who had fought by the side of Wellington, and conquered the conqueror of Europe; and of whom many of the English had predicted, that they would recolonize America. The officers and soldiers of the republic had, at the most, but two years' experience; and many of them had never before been in battle. Here then they met in fair and open fight, arm to arm and breast to breast.

Gen. Scott led on his men, while his officers nobly seconded his heroic exertions. The conflict was bloody; but the genius of America prevailed, and showed to Europe, that man does not dwindle on her plains. The veterans gave way, and retreated; Scott pursued, defeating them at every point, until at length their retreat being changed to a

disorderly rout, they sought the shelter of their entrenchments. So decisive had been the movements of Gen. Scott, that the enemy were totally defeated before the brigade of Gen. Ripley was brought into action. Gen. Brown now ordered up the artillery to batter their works ; but the day was spent, and their batteries appeared so strongly fortified, that he desisted from the attempt, drew off his forces, and returned to his camp.

In this engagement, Col. Gordon, of the royal Scots, and Col. the Marquis of Tweeddale, late aid-de-camp to the duke of Wellington, were both severely wounded. The loss of the enemy in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was 514 ; that of the Americans, 328.

In the meantime, a large body of British troops, commanded by Gen. Drummond, were situated at the head of lake Ontario, near Burlington Heights, and at York. Soon after the battle of Chippewa, Gen. Riall fell back to fort George. On the 10th of July, the American camp was removed from Street's Creek to Queenstown, and from thence Gen. Brown marched to invest fort George ; but finding unexpected difficulties, he retired from that position, and on the 23d, took post at Chippewa. He had, however, previously sent his wounded and heavy baggage across the strait to Schlosser, near the falls, intending at the time, to advance upon the enemy at Burlington Heights. The British, stung by their defeat at Chippewa, were making vigorous exertions to retrieve the fortune of the war ; and Gen. Drummond, with all the forces from Burlington and York had marched to fort George. Kingston and Prescott had also sent their forces across lake Ontario to the same point. An army of about five thousand, including fifteen hundred militia and Indians, was thus collected, to oppose the force of Gen. Brown, which, instead of augmenting, had been lessened, by the desertion of the Indians.

The army, under Gen. Drummond, advanced, and, on the morning of the 25th, Gen. Brown received information from Gen. Swift, who had the care of the wounded, that they were at Queenstown, and that a detachment threatened his stores at Schlosser. At this intelligence, Gen. Brown sent Gen. Scott, with his brigade and Capt. Towson's artillery, to make a movement on the Queenstown road, as if to attack the enemy, and thus divert their attention from his stores. Gen. Scott left the camp at four in the afternoon, moved along the river, and passed the grand cataract, in ignorance that the enemy were near. Having proceeded a short distance beyond the falls, he learned that the British army, in great force, were encamped behind a wood, only a few hundred yards to the north, and that they intended to attack the Americans the next day. Scott immediately transmitted this intelligence to his commander, and moved rapidly forward through the wood, till he perceived the

Gen. Brown falls
back to Chippe-
wa.

July 25.
Battle of Bridge-
water.

British strongly posted on an eminence defended by nine pieces of artillery. He halted, and drew up his men in order of battle, on a level ground near Lundy's lane, and in front of the British position. The artillery under Towson commenced a brisk cannonade, which was returned by the British battery. A warm engagement commenced, and the heroes of Chippewa stood for more than an hour, and maintained the unequal contest, against a force seven times their number. The British general, probably ignorant of their real situation, did not put forth his strength, or he might have surrounded and crushed the valiant Americans. In this case, a heavy censure would have fallen on their commander, for his temerity in bringing on the action. As it is, he has been charged with wasting the blood of his countrymen; but that blood was not wasted, which served to make the rights of his country respected, by blotting out from her escutcheon the stain of cowardice, with which too many of the early transactions of this war had tarnished it. It was late in the afternoon when this engagement commenced. The sun had now gone down, and darkness came on. It must have been dark indeed to this gallant band, for whom no reinforcement appeared. They still, however, maintained the battle, although an officer reminded the general, that the rule for retiring was accomplished, since more than one-fourth of his number were killed or wounded, among whom were many of his officers. The brave Colonel Brady had been the first to form his regiment, and on that the loss fell heaviest. Himself twice wounded, he was entreated by those who observed him pale from the loss of blood, to quit the field; "Not while I can stand," was the reply, worthy of Leonidas. At that critical moment, when these brave men were nearly overpowered, a reinforcement appeared. Gen. Ripley had been ordered to form his brigade, on the skirt of a wood to the right of Gen. Scott. But, finding that this position was not favourable for annoying the enemy, he took the responsibility of moving nearer to them before he formed. For this purpose, he was about to pass the brigade of Scott, but coming between him and the enemy, he found that he was suffering severely from their cannon. Ripley then conceived the bold thought of storming the formidable battery. "Col. Miller," said he, "will you take yonder battery?" "I'll try," said that heart of oak, and, at the head of the twenty-first regiment, he calmly took his course, marched up to the mouth of the blazing cannon, around which the enemy had rallied, bayoneted the men while firing, and possessed himself of their guns. Ripley had moved at the same time, at the head of the 23d regiment, to the attack of the infantry, and drove them from the eminence, which was the key of their position. Here Ripley formed his brigade. Gen. Porter, with his volunteers, was on the right, and the artillery of Towson in the centre. The enemy, mortified and enraged, rallied in their might, and advanced



BATTLE OF BRUGEWATER.

Ripley inquires of Muller if he can take yonder British Battery, and receives the following laconic answer—"I'll try."



to regain their position and artillery. The Americans perceived that the foe was coming on, but could not distinctly ascertain from what point. The moon had risen, but dark clouds were in the heavens, and her light was fitful. Sounds came indistinctly mingled from every quarter. The roaring of the cataract, the shrieks and groans of the wounded and dying, the discharge of artillery, were all heard, as well as the rush of the enemy's attack. In this situation, Ripley gave his troops the order to wait till the enemy's bayonets touched their own, and take aim by the light from the discharge of their muskets. The aim of the Americans was good, and numbers of their brave enemy fell. They closed up their ranks, and came on with the bayonets. The republicans stood the charge, and sturdily pushed back the thrust. For twenty minutes this deadly strife continued, when the veterans of Wellington retreated in disorder. Three times in the course of that bloody night, the same scene was repeated. Four times were the British met with the bayonet, and repulsed. At length, about mid-
night, they relinquished the conflict, leaving their posi-
tion and artillery to the Americans.

Americans are
victorious.

Although the brunt of battle was on the eminence, other efforts were making in different parts of the field. The brigade of Gen. Scott, shattered as it was, having formed anew, was not content to look idly on, while their brethren, who had stepped between them and death, were now bleeding in their turn. Gen. Scott charged at their head, through an opening in Ripley's line; but in the confusion and darkness of the scene, he passed between the fires of the combatants. He afterwards engaged in the battle, taking his post on Gen. Ripley's left. In another quarter, Col. Jessup, with only two hundred men, advanced upon the enemy, brought them to close action, drove them from the ground, and captured Gen. Riall, with other officers and soldiers, to an amount almost equal to his own.

In this sanguinary contest, the total loss of the British was eight hundred and seventy-eight. Generals Drummond and Riall were among the wounded. The Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, eight hundred and sixty. Of these, eleven officers were killed, among whom were Maj. M'Farland and Capt. Ritchie. Fifty-six officers were wounded, among whom were generals Brown and Scott; it was not, however, until towards the close of the action, that the two generals, highest in command, were disabled. Gen. Brown, on receiving his wound, gave notice to Gen. Ripley, that he was left in command, but ordered him to collect the wounded, remove the artillery, and retire to the camp at Chippewa. Unfortunately, the Americans lost the trophies of their hard-earned victory, as no means of removing the captured artillery were at hand; and Gen. Ripley was obliged to leave it upon the field of battle. The British, on learning that the

Americans had abandoned the field, re-occupied it immediately ; and taking advantage of this circumstance, their officers, in their despatches to their government, claimed the victory.*

The American army, now reduced to 1,600, retired to fort Erie, and proceeded to entrench themselves strongly in that position. The enemy, to the number of 5,000, followed them ; and on the 4th of August, commenced a regular siege. On the 5th, Gen. Gaines arrived at Erie from Sackett's Harbour, and took the command. Anticipating an attack, the Americans prepared themselves to receive it.

Aug. 4.
Fort Erie be-
sieged.

On the morning of the 15th, the enemy advanced in three columns, commanded by Colonels Drummond, Fischer, and Scott ; the columns to the right and left repeatedly attacked, and were as often repulsed. The centre column, under Drummond, after a sanguinary conflict, succeeded in scaling the walls, and taking possession of a bastion. While this savage man was denying mercy to the conquered Americans,† from some cause not well understood, a barrel of powder beneath him was ignited. There was a sudden crash, and bastion, assailants, and as-

Aug. 15.
Drummond as-
saults the fort,
and is repulsed.

* In writing this sketch, nothing has pained me so much as being obliged to pass over the names of individuals, who, from their gallant conduct, well deserve a place in the annals of their country. In the present instance, I hope I may be pardoned for obeying the impulse of private friendship, by devoting a few lines to the memory of an individual, who is not entitled from his rank, or any peculiarity in his achievements, to a place in so brief a sketch as that to which I am confined.

Lieut. Humphrey Webster, a native of New Hampshire, was a graduate of Middlebury College. So great was his zeal for his country's service, that although unblemished in character, respectable in connexions, and beloved by his friends, he enlisted as a private soldier, in 1812. He rose by his good conduct, until he was made a lieutenant. He was in Gen. Ripley's brigade, (I know not in what regiment,) at the awful night scene of Lundy's Lane. He was left upon the field, and reported among the slain. The mother had wept for her son, the family were clad in sable, and his classmates were preparing to pay honours to the valiant dead. Looking from the window of my house, in which he had been a resident, I saw a tall, emaciated, and ghastly form approaching, which, for one superstitious moment, I thought was the spirit of Webster.—It was Webster himself. From him I received a particular description of that horrible night. He remembered that he was fighting—then there was a blank in his recollection. He opened his eyes—it was morning, and the dead were lying around him. He was reclining against a tree, and some unknown hand had staunched and bound up his wounds, which were on his neck and near his ear. The Indians appeared in the field, and began to scalp and plunder the dead. A savage observed him, and with an uplifted tomahawk, approached, to deprive him of the little remains of life. Webster immediately comprehended what was his situation, and saved his life by a presence of mind by which, had he lived, he might have aided in some critical moment, to save his country. He passed himself upon the Indian for a British officer. "Are you a British Indian?" "Then," said he, in a stern tone of command, "carry me instantly to the British camp." The awed savage obeyed the mandate. He was kindly treated, and when so far restored, as to be able to visit his friends, was paroled ; but he was never well, and some years afterwards, he died in consequence of his wounds. At the time of his death, he was a highly respectable inhabitant of the state of Indiana.

† The savage Drummond repeatedly cried out, "Give the damned Yankees no quarter."

sailed, were blown together into the air. Those of the British who survived, fled in dismay, but their numbers were thinned as they passed the American artillery. According to the British official report, their loss on this day was 57 killed, of whom were Colonels Scott and Drummond, 319 wounded, and 539 missing. The total loss of the Americans was but 84; but among their killed, were Capt. Williams and Lieut. Macdonough, both officers of great merit.

After this repulse, both armies remained in a state of inactivity for some time. Gen. Gaines had been wounded by the bursting of a shell, and the command again devolved on Gen. Ripley; it was exercised, however, but a short time, as Gen. Brown, now recovered from his wounds, entered the fort, and resumed his functions.

The American public had become anxious for the fate of their brave defenders, and Gen. Izard, by the order of the secretary of war, abandoning a post which, from the arrival of the British troops at Montreal, it was hazardous to leave, marched from Plattsburg, with 5,000 men, for their relief. The enemy were daily receiving reinforcements, and their works, upon which they laboured with great assiduity, grew more and more formidable. Gen. Brown, learning that of the three parts into which the British army was divided, two were kept at the camp, while the third manned the batteries, determined to make a sortie, with a view of destroying the batteries, and cutting off the brigade on duty.

Gen. Izard sent
to the aid of
Brown.

On the 17th of September, at twelve o'clock, General Porter was ordered to move at the head of his detachment, by a passage through the wood, penetrate to the enemy's rear, and fall by surprise upon their right. Col. now Gen. Miller, was at the same time directed to advance a short distance, and then conceal his party in a ravine between the fort and the British camp, until Gen. Porter had commenced the attack. Gen. Ripley was posted, with a corps of reserve, between the bastions of the fort. Gen. Porter, with his men, trod silently and circuitously along their perilous way, when, arriving at their destined point, they rushed upon the enemy, whom they completely surprised. In thirty minutes they had taken a block house and two bastions, spiked their guns, blown up their magazine, and made prisoners of their garrison; but the brave Colonels Gibson and Wood had fallen at the head of their columns. At the moment of the explosion of the magazine, Gen. Miller came up. He had been warned by the firing, that Porter had met the enemy. His division was equally brave and successful, but in his attack Gen. Davis, of the New-York militia was killed. Gen. Ripley arrived with the reserve, in season to share the danger and the honour of this well-planned and well-conducted enterprise. Thus in a few hours were the enemy deprived of the fruit of forty-seven days'

Sept. 17.
Sortie from fort
Erie, and the de-
struction of the
British works.

labour, of a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and of 1,000 men, which was their number of killed, wounded, and prisoners. Gen. Miller, on whom the command devolved, secured the prisoners and the trophies of the victory, and re-conducted the army to the fort in perfect order. But the joy of the victory was diminished, by the loss of many brave associates. Eighty-three were killed, 216 wounded, and as many missing; amounting in the whole to not much less than one-third of their whole number. After the destruction of his works

The British army retires. before fort Erie, Gen. Drummond broke up his camp, and retired on the night of the 21st, to his entrenchments behind Chippewa.

Soon after this, the arrival of Gen. Izard placed the Americans on a footing which enabled them again to commence offensive operations; and leaving Erie in command of Col. Hindman, Gen. Brown again advanced towards Chippewa. Near this place, an affair occurred on the

Oct. 20. 20th of October, in which Col. Bissel, with a detachment of 1,000 men, obtained an advantage over the Marquis of Tweeddale, who commanded a corps of 1,200; took from him a field piece, and obliged him to retire with considerable loss, having himself experienced a loss of 67 men.

During the summer of this year, an expedition was undertaken for the purpose of recovering Mackinaw. A part of the squadron on lake Erie, had for this object been extended into lake Huron, under the command of Com. Sinclair. Major Croghan, accompanied by Captain Holmes, left Detroit on the 5th of July. Co-operating with Com. Sinclair, they succeeded in destroying the British establishments at St. Joseph's and the Sault de St. Marie, and then proceeded to Mackinaw.

Unsuccessful attempt to retake Mackinaw. Croghan landed his troops, but his force was not sufficient to reduce the fortress. The attempt was attended with the loss of many brave officers, among whom was Captain Holmes. Two vessels, which were left by the Americans to prevent supplies arriving at the fort, were blown up by the British. Com. Sinclair, however, succeeded in capturing the last of the British vessels on the upper lakes.

M'Arthur's expedition. On the 22d of October, Gen. M'Arthur left Detroit, with 700 men, and marching in the direction of the river Thames, he destroyed the British stores at different places, and took 150 prisoners, without any loss to his own party, and returned to Detroit, on the 27th of November.

SECTION X.

In the early part of the year 1814, Admiral Cockburn confined his operations to a predatory warfare upon the shores of the Chesapeake. The only protection of the inhabitants was a fleet of gun boats and smaller vessels, commanded by Com. Barney. Early in June, several skirmishes took place between this flotilla and a part of the enemy's vessels; but the American commander, not being able to cope with the superior force of the British, took refuge in the Patuxent, and was there blockaded by the British admiral.

Com. Barney
blockaded in the
Patuxent.

As it was now well known that the peace of Paris left unimployed a large veteran land force, and an immense navy at the disposal of England, there was every reason to expect that she would use it to the annoyance of America: nor was there wanting the boasts and threats of the English prints to aid this impression. America ought to have been up and doing, and all her vulnerable points, as much as possible secured: and especially ought her government to have made a reasonable provision for the safety of her capital. Not that Washington, like the great metropolis of an European kingdom, contained the strength and wealth of the empire, to invite great exertions on the part of an enemy; but from common opinion, to possess the capital of a country, as the flag of a ship, is the point of honour. But inexperienced in war, the government committed an error, which, recorded by the historian, stands as a beacon to their successors.

The administration were not, however, inattentive to the object of defending Washington, and the adjacent city of Baltimore, but their measures were inefficient. The national territory had been previously divided into nine military districts. A tenth was now formed, embracing Maryland, the District of Columbia, and a part of Virginia. On the 4th of July, a requisition was made, by the president, upon the governors of these states for ninety-three thousand militia. Of these, fifteen thousand were within the limits of the new military district. One thousand regulars were also to be added, and thus there was numerically a force of sixteen thousand men at the disposal of Gen. Winder, who was appointed to the command. But it was only a fortnight previous to the invasion, which terminated in the capture of Washington, that the order, authorizing General Winder to call for these forces, on the respective states which were to furnish them, was received. Time is necessarily consumed in the tardy operations of republican governments,

State of the
force for the de-
fence of Wash-
ington.

unused to war ; and when, on the 20th of August, news arrived that the enemy had landed at Benedict on the Patuxent, Gen. Winder had not collected more than 3,000 men, and these were unacquainted with each other, and mostly unaccustomed to move with regularity, or to act in concert.

Cochrane arrives in the Chesapeake.

On the 17th of August, the British fleet in the Chesapeake was greatly augmented by the arrival of Admiral Cochrane, who had been sent out with a large land force, commanded by Maj. Gen. Ross, in pursuance of the resolution which had been taken by the British government, "to destroy and lay waste such towns and districts upon the coast, as might be found assailable." This formidable fleet was divided into three parts, one of which, carrying Gen. Ross, and commanded by Admiral Cochrane, proceeded up the Patuxent ; one, under Capt. Gordon, ascended the Potomac ; and the third, under Sir Peter Parker, went further up the Chesapeake, as if to threaten Baltimore.

British land and ascend the Patuxent.

On the 19th, Gen. Ross landed at Benedict, with 5,000 infantry : on the 20th, he commenced his march, keeping along the right bank of the Patuxent. His object was, in the first instance, to co-operate with Admiral Cockburn, in the destruction of Com. Barney's squadron, which that admiral had for some time been blockading. On the 22d, the expedition reached Pig Point, and descried the broad pendant of the American flotilla. They

Americans destroy their own flotilla.

instantly advanced to the attack ; but on their approach, the Americans abandoned their fleet, and sixteen out of the seventeen boats, of which it was composed, were blown into the air. Com. Barney, no longer able to secure them, thus prevented their falling into the hands of the enemy. The British were now distant only sixteen miles from Washington.

On the afternoon of the 20th of August, when Gen. Winder was apprised of the danger of the capital, he left it with his force and advanced towards the enemy. On the 22d, the main body of his army being encamped about half way from Marlborough to Washington, a detachment under Major Peter met, and annoyed the enemy at Marlborough. On this day, Com. Barney united his marines with the army. On the

Retreating policy of the American troops.

night of the 23d, the British rested only five miles from the American camp. The president of the United States, the secretary of war, and some of the other heads of department, here visited Gen. Winder, and it was resolved to fall back nearer to the capital, for the purpose of concentrating the American force, or, as is suggested by some, from fear of a night attack. The same retreating policy was pursued, until Gen. Winder had re-crossed the eastern branch of the Potomac. Here he made provisions for guarding the bridge, it being supposed the enemy would attempt the

capital from this point. In the meantime, the militia from Baltimore, under Gen. Stansbury, advanced to the relief of Washington. These, to the number of 2,200, including a company of artillery, rested on the night of the 23d near Bladensburg. Being under orders to join Gen. Winder, they commenced their march on the morning of the 24th. But it was now discovered, that although Gen. Winder, or those under whose direction he acted, had carefully set a trap at the great bridge on the east branch, the British commander did not choose to fall into it, but had taken for safety a more circuitous route, and was marching past Washington, to gain the Bladensburg road on the north. On his march for Washington, Gen. Stansbury met the order of Gen. Winder to retrace his steps to Bladensburg, and there give battle to the enemy. Almost exhausted by fatigue and the heat of the season, he obeyed the order. On his march he was met by Col. Monroe, secretary of state, who had been scouring the adjacent country for volunteers. He proposed to Stansbury his making a movement to get in the enemy's rear; but that general being under orders to the contrary, did not feel a liberty to follow this judicious counsel. About noon he met the enemy near Bladensburg. Gen. Winder soon came up with the main body. The president and heads of department were on the field, but as the event of the day was doubtful, and they had probably documents of importance to secure, all left it about the time the action commenced, except Col. Monroe, who was active in forming and bringing forward the cavalry of General Stansbury. A contest ensued, in which, as might have been expected from the condition of the American troops, the British were victorious. Com. Barney, with his little band of marines, fought valiantly, and for some time held the enemy in check; but he was at length wounded and made prisoner. The regulars and militia of the District of Columbia stood their ground for a time, but at length left the field and retreated towards Washington. They were now joined by fresh militia from Virginia, and upon the heights they formed again, and once more interposed a barrier between Washington and its invaders. But on surveying their numbers, wasted by the flight of many timid, and the fall of a few brave men, they were found inadequate to the task of its defence; and with anguish they heard the order to retire, and leave the capital of their country to the mercy of her enemies.

Aug. 24.
Battle of Bladensburg, in which the British are victorious.

Gen. Ross entered Washington at eight in the evening, and with that barbarism which distinguished the Goths and Vandals of the middle ages, but which is unknown to civilized warfare, he disgraced himself and his country in the eyes of Europe and America, by destroying the monuments of taste and literature, with which the young republic had embellished her

They enter and plunder Washington.

chosen seat. The British commenced with destroying the capitol, which was in an unfinished state, the extensive library, public records, and whatever else of value it contained. The public offices and the president's house were wantonly sacrificed, together with many private dwellings. The public stores at the navy yard, and the vessels on the stocks, were burned by order of the president, to prevent their falling into the hands of the invaders. The elegant bridge across the Potomac was also destroyed. The loss of public property alone amounted to one million of dollars. The British left Washington on the evening of the 25th, and proceeded without any opposition to their ships, which they reached on the evening of the 27th.

The loss of the Americans, in the battle of Bladensburg, was 30 killed and 50 wounded; that of the enemy, 249 in killed and wounded. Their loss during this expedition, amounted to 400 killed and wounded, besides 500, who were taken prisoners, or deserted.

Had the British confined themselves to the capture and destruction of public property appropriated to warlike purposes, the glory of their conquest would have been untarnished. The Americans would have felt deeply their humiliation, and the resentment of the nation might, as was expected in England, have fallen heavily upon the public servants; but the manner in which the advantage was used, produced, in the minds of the people, a stern vindictive feeling against the conquerors, which swallowed up all minor resentments, and united the nation, not in a wish for peace, but in high resolves for war.

Aug. 27. In the meantime, the squadron, under Capt. Gordon, Alexandria capitulates. passed up the Potomac without opposition, and appeared before Alexandria, on the 27th of August. The inhabitants entered into a capitulation, by which they delivered up their merchandize and shipping to the enemy, who, laden with a rich booty, returned to the ocean, though not without being much annoyed from the shore as they passed.

The squadron which had sailed up the Chesapeake, under Sir Peter Parker, landed about 250 marines, for the purpose of surprising 200 militia, who were encamped near Bellair, under Col. Reed. They were repulsed with the loss of 41 in killed and wounded. Sir Peter Parker was mortally wounded.

Admiral Cochrane having received on board his fleet the elated conquerors of Washington, the combined land and sea forces moved in the confidence of victory to the attack of Baltimore. After passing down the Patuxent, they ascended the Chesapeake, and on the 11th of September, appeared at the mouth of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from Baltimore. On the morning of the 12th, Gen. Ross, with an army amounting to about 5,000, debarked at North Point, and commenced his march towards the city.

Gen. Smith commanded the whole force of the defenders. Watching the movements of the enemy, he despatched about 2,300 men, under Gen. Stricker, who, on the 11th, marched towards North Point. They halted at night seven miles from the city. On the morning of the 12th, information was received of the landing of the enemy, and Gen. Stricker advanced to meet them. A skirmish between the advanced parties ensued, in which Gen. Ross was killed. The command then devolved on Col. Brooke, who, having the instructions of Gen. Ross, continued to move forward. An action commenced at about half past three, by a discharge of cannon on both sides. After maintaining the contest for some time, the Americans gave way, and Gen. Stricker retired behind the entrenchments on the heights, where Gen. Smith was stationed with the main army.

Sept. 12.
Battle near Baltimore.

On the morning of the 13th, the British army advanced within a mile and a half of the entrenchments; and in order to draw forth the Americans, they made several manœuvres, which were so met by Gen. Smith, that they could not obtain their object; but, on the contrary, the republicans maintained the advantage of ground and position. Col. Brooke was aware that they were superior to him in numbers as well as position; he therefore made no attempt upon them during the day, but disposed his troops for a night attack. In the evening, he received a communication from Admiral Cochrane, the commander of the naval forces, informing him that fort M'Henry had resisted all his efforts, and that the entrance of the harbour was blocked up by vessels sunk for that purpose, and that a naval co-operation against the town and camp, was impracticable. Col. Brooke resolved therefore not to hazard an attack, but moved off in the night, and, on the the 15th, re-embarked at North Point.

Sept. 13.
British repulsed at fort M'Henry.

Great was the joy of the inhabitants of Baltimore, at the success of their efforts for the preservation of their city; and the warmest gratitude was manifested to those whose vigorous exertions had saved them from the dreaded invasion. Among these the gallant defenders of fort M'Henry were particularly remembered.

The harbours of New-York, New London, and Boston, continued to be closely blockaded. The humanity of Com. Hardy, the British commander on that station, in his incursions into the interior, affords a striking contrast to the brutality of Admiral Cockburn, and the squadron in the Chesapeake. In some cases, however, but contrary to his orders, private property was destroyed by parties of officers and marines.

On the 11th of July, Com. Hardy, with eight ships and 2,000 men, made a descent upon the coast of Maine, and without resistance, took possession of Eastport and

July.
Com. Hardy makes a descent

upon the coast all the towns on the west side of Passamaquoddy bay. of Maine. Many of the inhabitants remained, but it was on the degrading condition of acknowledging themselves the subjects of Great Britain.

British occupy a portion of Maine In August, the governor of New Brunswick, with the aid of Admiral Griffith, undertook an expedition to the Penobscot river. They took possession of Castine, which had been previously evacuated, and proceeded up the river to Hamden, where the frigate John Adams had been placed for preservation. The militia who had been stationed for its defence, fled on their approach, and the frigate was blown up, to prevent its falling into the hands of the British. A proclamation was issued by the council of New Brunswick, declaring the country east of the Penobscot in possession of the king of Great Britain; and a direct communication was opened between New Brunswick and Canada. The British continued to occupy this section of Maine until the close of the war.

Aug. 9. Early in August, the enemy's ships under Commodore Hardy, appeared before Stonington, in Connecticut, and threatened its destruction. They commenced a severe attack, but were repulsed by a battery of two eighteen pounders, and a small band of militia. They then proceeded to another part of the town, which they expected to find defenceless; but here the well directed fire of a six pounder, forced them to return to their ships. They bombarded the place during the night, and in the morning renewed the attack; but finding it so gallantly defended, at the end of three days the Commodore retired.

SECTION XI.

The British force in Canada is increased. DURING the months of July and August, the British army in Canada was augmented by another considerable body of those troops, who had, under Lord Wellington, acquired experience and reputation in the war of the Spanish peninsula. With these troops, Sir George Prevost determined to invade America, by the same route, that Burgoyne had formerly pursued, and, as is supposed by some, with the same expectation of being able to penetrate by the way of lake Champlain and Hudson river, to New-York. Like that general too, his hopes were sanguine, that if he appeared in force in the country the inhabitants would join him; and it is said that a part of his baggage, like that of Burgoyne, consisted of arms and

clothing, for those whom he expected would flock to his standard. The American smugglers, who wished to court the favour of the British, had encouraged these hopes, which the republican party accused the federalists of having excited.

The army at Plattsburg had been reduced by the departure of Gen. Izard for fort Erie, and Sir George Prevost seized this opportunity for making the projected invasion. Having concentrated his force on the frontier of Canada, he entered the American territory on the 3d of September. From Champlain, he issued a proclamation, giving the assurance that his arms would only be directed against the government, and those who supported it; while no injury should be done to the peaceful and unoffending inhabitants. The fire of genuine patriotism kindled in the breasts of the Americans, when they heard that the foot of the invader pressed the soil of their country, and that he had dared to call on the people to separate themselves from their government. The inhabitants of the northern part of New-York, and the hardy sons of the Green Mountains, without distinction of party, rose in arms, and hastened towards the scene of action.

Sept. 3.

They enter the American territory.

A different disposition, however, prevailed among a few individuals of the federal party, in Vermont; and, unhappily, among these was the governor, who belonged to the federal party—a well meaning man, but too much under the influence of others. Stationing himself at Burlington, he endeavoured to dissuade the volunteers from crossing to Plattsburg, stating that Gen. Macomb did not need their services. In consequence of these representations, some were actually returning. At the solicitation of Col. Fasset, of the regular army, a special messenger crossed to Plattsburg, to obtain a written request for their services from Gen. Macomb. Gen. Strong, a federalist, and a highly respectable farmer and country gentleman, was at Burlington earnestly urged by the governor and his friends, not to embark in the enterprise; but persisting in his purpose, he crossed to Plattsburg, where he was chosen to command the volunteers. These measures of the governor and his advisers were exceedingly unpopular with the people.

In the meantime, Sir George Prevost, at the head of 14,000 troops, marching in two columns, advanced upon Plattsburg. One column, with all the baggage and artillery, proceeded by the lake road, and the other, under the command of Gen. Brisbane, by Beekmantown. Major Appling, with his corps of riflemen, and Major Sproul, with a detachment of the 13th regiment of infantry, were ordered on the lake road, to check the advance of the enemy; which they endeavoured to do, by destroying bridges and felling trees in the road. On the 4th and 5th of September, the British advanced on both roads, and the column under Gen. Brisbane encamped

They advance to Plattsburg.

on the Beekmantown road, eight miles from Plattsburg, and two miles from the position of Gen. Mooers, who had 700 militia under his command. On the nights of the 5th and 6th, Gen. Macomb ordered Major Wool, with two hundred and thirty regulars, to join Gen. Mooers, and to give support to the militia, in retarding the advance of the enemy. At the dawn of day, Gen. Brisbane broke up his encampment, and resumed his line of march for Plattsburg. He was met by Major Wool, about seven miles from the latter place. A skirmish ensued, but in consequence of the superior force of the British, he was compelled to retreat, not, however, without disputing every inch of ground to Plattsburg, killing and wounding one hundred and twenty of the enemy; among whom was Lieut. Col. Wellington. Maj. Wool lost forty-five in killed and wounded. Sir George arrived in the course of the morning, with the main column, and encamped his whole army before Plattsburg.

Situation of the
American army
at Plattsburg.

The situation of Gen. Macomb was critical in the extreme. His whole regular force did not exceed 2,000, and his fortifications were merely a show of defence. Had Sir George pursued Maj. Wool across the Saranac, on the morning of the 6th, he no doubt could have taken with ease the forts occupied by Gen. Macomb and his army. Prevost has been censured for this delay, which gave his enemy time to increase his force; but the British commander, expecting that a part of the inhabitants would unite with him, calculated that his own army would also be augmented. Preferring to wait until the two fleets should have settled the question of the supremacy of the lake, he contented himself with erecting batteries to aid in what he considered certain—the capture of Gen. Macomb and his army.

On the morning of the 11th of September, Sir George formed his army in two columns, preparatory to an assault. One column passed the Saranac, and placed itself in the rear of the American position, while the other was in the village in front, ready to advance whenever the order might be given, or circumstances might justify. Such was the position of the army, when the British fleet made its appearance in the bay of Plattsburg. It was commanded by Com. Downie, and composed of a frigate of thirty-nine guns, named the *Confiance*, a brig of sixteen, two sloops of eleven, and several gallies, mounting, in the whole, ninety-five guns, and having 1,000 men. The American squadron, under Com. Macdonough, which was anchored in the bay, mounted no more than eighty-six guns, and had only 820 men. It consisted of the *Saratoga*, carrying twenty-six guns; the *Eagle*, of twenty guns; the *Ticonderoga*, of seventeen; the *Preble*, of seven, and ten gallies.

The enemy, having the advantage of choice of position, anchored within three hundred yards of the American line, and at 9 o'clock, com

menced the action. The *Confiance* was opposed to the *Saratoga*, the enemy's brig to the *Eagle*; one sloop assisting their brig and ship, while the *Saratoga* and *Eagle* were supported by one division of the gallies; the remaining division being opposed to the schooner, sloop, and thirteen gallies of the enemy. The surface of the lake was unruffled, and for one hour and a half, the *Saratoga* and *Confiance* poured upon each other a most destructive fire, while the smaller vessels commenced a close and spirited action. The *Eagle* then cut her cable, and passing between the *Ticonderoga* and *Saratoga*, increased the danger of the American commodore, by leaving him exposed to a heavy fire from the enemy's brig. His guns were dismounted, or had become unmanageable; when, by the skilful manœuvre of winding his ship, which Com. Downie vainly attempted, he brought a fresh broadside to bear upon the *Confiance*; and she soon surrendered. A broadside was then poured upon the brig, which in fifteen minutes lowered her colours. The sloop opposed to the *Eagle*, as also that engaged with the gallies, had struck some time before. Three gallies belonging to the enemy were sunk, and the remainder escaped in a shattered condition. A frigate, brig, and two sloops of war, were the trophies of the victory. The action lasted two hours and a half, and the shattered appearance of both squadrons, bore witness to the severity of the conflict. The British loss was eighty-four killed, and one hundred and ten wounded; among the former was Com. Downie. The loss of the Americans was fifty-two killed, and fifty-eight wounded.

Sept. 11.

The American fleet are victorious over the British on lake Champlain.

At the moment of the engagement between the fleets, the British opened their land batteries upon the American works, but with little effect. They ceased, however, with the victory on the lake, when Sir George recalled his columns from the contemplated assault, and soon after commenced his retreat towards Canada, leaving behind large quantities of ammunition and military stores. The column placed in the rear of the Americans, was pursued by Gen. Strong, with his militia, when the soldiers of one company were either killed, wounded, or captured.

Prevost retires from Plattsburg.

Affairs interesting to the belligerents were also transacted on the ocean. During the month of April, Com. Porter returned from his cruise in the Pacific ocean. He had sailed from the Delaware in the autumn of 1812, and after cruising off the eastern coast of South America for some time, he steered for the Pacific ocean, and arrived at Valparaiso in March, 1813. He first proceeded to Lima, and from thence went to the Gallipagos islands, where he cruized until October. Here he greatly annoyed the British commerce, particularly the whale fishery, cap-

Com. Porter annoys the British commerce in the Pacific.

turing, in the whole, twelve armed whale ships, whose aggregate force amounted to 107 guns, and 302 men. Of these prizes, the Atlantic was equipped with twenty guns, intended chiefly as a store ship, and with the name of Essex Junior, given in command to Lieut. Downes. With this vessel, Downes conducted the prizes made by Porter, to the neutral port of Valparaiso.

Com. Hillyar
sent to take Por-
ter's squadron.

Alarmed by the successes of the Essex, the British admiralty had sent out Com. Hillyar, with the Phebe frigate, carrying 53 guns, and a complement of 320 men, accompanied by Capt. Tucker, with the Cherub sloop of war, mounting 28 guns, and having 180 men, making the whole of their force 81 guns and 500 men.

On learning the vicinity of his enemy, by the return of Lieut. Downes, Com. Porter steered for the island of Noaheevah, for the purpose of refitting his vessel. He took possession of the island in the name of the American government, named it in honour of the president, Madison's Island, and established a friendly intercourse among the natives, whom he had found in a state of hostility. Leaving three of his vessels under the charge of Lieut. Gamble, he proceeded to Valparaiso, and there, as he expected, met with Com. Hillyar, who had been seeking him for five months. The Essex mounted 46 guns, but her crew at this time consisted of only 250 men, and the Essex Junior was manned by sixty. Finding to his regret, that his force was greatly inferior to that of his adversary, Com. Porter remained blockaded in the port for six weeks.

Determined to attempt an escape, the wind being favourable, he set sail on the 28th of March, 1814. On rounding the point at the entrance of the bay, a sudden squall carried away his maintopmast. The enemy gave him chase with both their ships. In his disabled state he anchored in a small bay, within pistol shot of the shore, hoping that Com. Hillyar would respect the neutrality of the place. Perceiving, however, that he continued to approach, Porter made every preparation

Essex attacked
by the enemy,
and compelled
to surrender.

in his power to meet him. The British vessels commenced the attack; but so vigorously was it met, that in the course of half an hour the Phebe and Cherub were so much disabled as to retire for repairing damages. The crew of the Essex had suffered severely from the hot raking fire of the enemy; but they still showed a spirit of brave and determined resistance. A tremendous firing was soon renewed. The Phebe being enabled to choose her distance, took a station out of the reach of the artillery of the Essex, while with her long guns she poured upon the American frigate a destructive fire; many of Porter's guns had all their men destroyed, and one was manned three times during the action. The American commodore next endeavoured to board his enemy,

but his masts and rigging were shot away, and his ship had become unmanageable. He next determined to run his vessel on shore, land his men, and destroy her ; but the wind shifting, he was blown into a situation to receive the raking fire of the enemy. His ship caught fire. The flames burst out in all directions, and the brave men were threatened with instant death, from the explosion of the magazine, near which the fire had taken. The boats had been cut to pieces, and the sailors received permission to swim for the shore, but most of them preferred remaining with the commander to share the fate of the ship ; the enemy still firing upon them. The sailors at length succeeded in extinguishing the flames of the *Essex*, not, however, until a considerable quantity of powder had exploded. With a desperate resolution they again went to their guns. Com. Porter now determined to consult his officers on the expediency of surrendering, when, to his surprise, Lieut. M'Knight was the only remaining officer to be consulted. The commodore then struck his colours, but his ship was fired upon for ten minutes afterwards. Only 75 of the crew of the *Essex* remained ; the rest were killed or wounded. The loss of the enemy was also severe, and both vessels were in a sinking state. Com. Porter was sent on parole, in the *Essex Junior*, to the United States, where he was received at New-York with distinguished honours. The desperate valour which he displayed in this, the most bloody naval action of the war, will give his memory to future ages, as a hero of the same sanguinary class with the terrible Paul Jones.

On the 21st of April, the United States' sloop of war, *Frolic*, commanded by Com. Bainbridge, was captured by the *Orpheus* frigate. On the 29th of the same month, the United States' sloop, the *Peacock*, of which Captain Warrington was the commander, captured the British brig *Epervier*, commanded by Capt. Wales. The action took place in latitude $27^{\circ} 47'$ north, and longitude $30^{\circ} 9'$. During its continuance, which was 45 minutes, the *Epervier* had eight men killed and fifteen wounded, while the *Peacock* escaped without a man killed, and with only two wounded.

Frolic captured. Peacock captures the Epervier.

The *Wasp*, commanded by Capt. Blakely, left Portsmouth, (N. H.) on the 18th of May. On the 28th of June, near the entrance to St. George's channel, she fell in with the English brig *Reindeer*, commanded by Capt. Manners. After an action of 19 minutes, the *Reindeer* having lost her commander and purser, and 27 men killed and 42 wounded, and having made two unsuccessful attempts to board the *Wasp*, was herself boarded by the American vessel, and forced to strike her colours. She was so much injured during the engagement, that the next day she was burned. The Americans lost in the action 26 killed and wounded.

Wasp captures the Reindeer.

The *Wasp* continued her cruise, and after making several captures,

put into the port of L'Orient, in France, on the 8th of July. She remained there until the 27th of August, and when four days at sea, she met the brig Avon, commanded by Capt. Arbuthnot. After a severe action of 45 minutes, and after orders were given to board her, three British vessels appeared in sight, and Capt. Blakely was compelled to abandon his prize. The Avon sunk soon after he left her. During the remainder of the cruise, Capt. Blakely captured fifteen merchant vessels ; but he never returned to port ; nor is it known what was the fate of the vessel and her gallant crew.

1815. The last naval battle during the war, ended in the
Jan. 15. loss of the frigate President, then under the command
 of Com. Decatur. Four British vessels were off Sandy Hook, blockading the harbour of New-York ; the Pomone, the Tenedos, the Majestic, and the Endymion. Com. Decatur attempted to put to sea on the 15th of January, 1815 ; when they gave chase to his vessel, and after eighteen hours, he was brought to an engagement with the Endymion. For two hours and a half the action continued, and Decatur had silenced the guns of his adversary, when the whole fleet appeared. Having one fifth of his crew killed or wounded, and being opposed by a force greatly superior to his own, he no longer hesitated to surrender.

In October, communications were received from the American commissioners in Europe. Great Britain demanded such terms as extinguished the hopes of a speedy reconciliation. The situation of affairs in the United States was such as to alarm the friends of their country.

1814. The expenditure of the nation greatly exceeded its income, its credit was low, its finances disordered, and a decided opposition was manifested to every measure of the administration ; yet, undismayed amidst these difficulties, congress shrunk not from the duties which the crisis imposed. New loans were authorized, taxes augmented, and every preparation made for prosecuting the war with increased vigour. Mr. Monroe was appointed secretary of war, in the place of General Armstrong.

The opposition had at this time assumed a bold attitude ; some of the New England states, as has been related, refused to call out their militia, and Massachusetts even proposed to withhold the revenue of the state from the general government. A convention of delegates from the New England states was proposed, the object of which was, to take into consideration the situation of the country, and to decide upon such measures as might lead to a redress of supposed grievances. Members were appointed by the legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. Two members from New Hampshire, and one from

Vermont were appointed at county meetings. The convention met at Hartford, in Connecticut, on the 15th of December, 1814, Dec. 15. and sat nearly three weeks, with closed doors. After Meeting of a convention at Hartford. their adjournment, they published an address, charging the national government with pursuing measures hostile to the interests of New England, and recommending amendments of the federal constitution. Among these amendments, it was proposed that congress should have no power to lay an embargo for more than sixty days, that they should not interdict commercial intercourse, or declare war, without the concurrence of two-thirds of both houses; that no person, who shall be hereafter naturalized, shall be eligible to a seat in the senate or house of representatives, or hold any civil office under the government of the United States; and that the same person shall not be twice elected to the office of president of the United States, nor the president elected from the same state for two successive terms. A resolution was passed, which provided for the calling of another convention, if the United States "should refuse their consent to arrangements, whereby the New England states, separately, or in concert, might be empowered to assume upon themselves, the defence of their territory against the enemy, and appropriate therefor, such part of the revenue raised in those states as might be necessary." The committee appointed by the convention to communicate these resolves to the government of the union, at Washington, met with the news of peace.

The proposed alterations of the constitution were submitted to the several states, and rejected by all, except Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Probably there had been no measure taken since America was a nation, so odious to the great body of the people of the United States, as this convention, or which subjected the agents to such severe personal, as well as political censure.*

* Feeling my prepossessions to be strong against this convention, and aware of the difficulty of writing an impartial history where this is the case, I took the liberty of addressing a letter to a highly respectable gentleman, who was a leading member of that body, requesting him to write for this history, a short compend of the motives and views which induced the Hartford Convention; considering it right that as to motives, all should be allowed to speak for themselves. This gentleman, on account of recent family afflictions, declined my request. At the same time he made many interesting remarks on the subject, some of which were new to me. The following is an extract from his letter. "The Hartford Convention, far from being the original contrivance of a cabal, for any purpose of faction or disunion, was a result, growing by natural consequences out of existing circumstances. More than a year previous to its institution, a convention was simultaneously called for by the people, in their town meetings, in all parts of Massachusetts. Petitions to that effect were accumulated on the tables of the legislative chamber. They were postponed for twelve months, by the influence of those who now sustain the odium of the measure. The adoption of it was the consequence, not the source of a popular sentiment; and it was intended, by those who voted for it, as a safety valve by which the steam arising from the fermentation

SECTION XII.

Jackson fixes his
head quarters at
Mobile.

AFTER the peace with the Creeks, and about the middle of August, Gen. Jackson fixed his head quarters at Mobile. Here he learned that three British ships had entered the harbour of Pensacola, and landed about 300 men, under Col. Nicholls, together with a large quantity of guns and ammunition, for the purpose of arming the Indians. Gen. Jackson also heard that the British meditated a descent, with a large force, upon the southern shores of the United States. He immediately made a call for the militia of Tennessee, and was promptly furnished with two thousand men by that patriotic state.

Conduct of Col.
Nicholls, and
character of the
Barratarians.

Colonel Nicholls issued from Mobile a proclamation, which was addressed to the inhabitants of Louisiana, Kentucky, or Tennessee, inviting them to return to their allegiance to the British government, and help to restore the country to its rightful owner. This proclamation produced no other excitement among the people to whom it was addressed, than that of their risibles. If this attempt manifested Nicholls to be weak, another, which terminated as little to his satisfaction, showed him to be wicked. West of the mouth of the Mississippi, the island of Barrataria was the resort of a band of marauders, who, by their daring courage, and the celerity and mysterious secrecy of their movements, kept the country in a state of perpetual alarm; now appearing to strike some unexpected blow of robbery, perhaps of murder, sometimes by sea, sometimes by land; then suddenly disappearing, and constantly eluding pursuit. Their numbers were formidable, amounting to five or six hundred. Their leader, La Fitte, was subtle and courageous; possessing traits of magnanimity, yet unprincipled, as must have been the chieftain of such a band. They had made a pretence of sailing under the Carthaginian flag, as privateers, but their prizes were condemned in their own ports. In short, they were by land, robbers; by sea, pirates. The American authorities, by whom they were outlawed, having endeavoured to root them out, applied to the British to lend their assistance. Instead of this, Nicholls, disclosing to La Fitte that a powerful attempt was to be made on New Orleans, offered him a large reward, if, by his knowledge of the passes, he would aid the British in their approach to the threatened city.

of the times might escape, not as a boiler in which it should be generated. Whether good or ill, it was a measure of the people, of states, of legislatures. How unjust to brand the unwilling agents, the mere committee of legislative bodies, with the stigma of facts which were first authorized, and then sanctioned by their constituted assemblies."

La Fitte drew from him important facts, and then dismissing his propositions with disdain, disclosed the whole to Claiborne, governor of Louisiana. Struck with this act of the bandit's generosity for a country which had set a price upon his head, and perceiving how valuable would be the services of the Barratarians in the crisis which was approaching, Gov. Claiborne, by a proclamation, offered pardon to the whole band, if they would come forward in defence of the country. They joyfully accepted the proposition, and afterwards rendered essential services.

La Fitte makes disclosures to the Americans.

Jackson had represented to the government, that the Spanish were not performing the part of a neutral nation, but were suffering the British to use the port of Pensacola for the purpose of annoyance to the Americans, and he therefore urged the propriety of their taking it into possession during the war. Not having received an answer, he determined to hazard the responsibility of taking possession of the port without the orders of government. Having received his reinforcements, about the last of October, he marched from Mobile, at the head of nearly two thousand men. He arrived in the neighbourhood of Pensacola, on the 6th of November, and sent a flag to the governor, for the purpose of conference, but his messenger was fired upon. On the seventh, he entered the town, at a point where he had not been expected. A battery was, however, formed in the street; but this was soon carried at the point of the bayonet, and the governor capitulated. The British troops destroyed the forts at the entrance of the harbour, and with their shipping evacuated the bay.

Nov. 7.
Pensacola surrenders to the Americans.

Jackson now returned to Mobile. He had received information that Admiral Cochrane had been reinforced at Bermuda, and that thirteen ships of the line, with transports and an army of ten thousand men, were advancing. Believing New Orleans to be their destination, he marched for that place, and reached it on the 1st of December.

Early in the month of September, the inhabitants of Louisiana were impressed with the belief that the British were about to invade them with a powerful force, and their principal citizens, among whom were Gov. Claiborne and Edward Livingston, Esq. beheld the prospect with well grounded alarm. This portion of the union having been but recently annexed, its yeomanry felt not the same pride of country as those of the older states. New Orleans being assailable from so many points, it was difficult to secure it in all. Yet, far from being discouraged by difficulties, these patriotic citizens felt them only as stimulants to greater exertions. Gov. Claiborne issued his proclamation, calling on the people to arouse for the defence of their country and their homes. Mr. Livingston, at a meeting of the citizens, who convened on the 16th of September to devise

New Orleans threatened with invasion.

measures in co-operation with the government of the state, made an eloquent and moving appeal, calling on the inhabitants to prove the assertion a slander, that they were not attached to the American government. The people aroused; defences were commenced, to guard the principal passes, and volunteer corps were organised. In the mean-

Gen. Jackson
entrusted with
the direction of
affairs.

time, Gen. Jackson arrived, and all classes concurred in putting him at the head of affairs. His powerful talents, and invariable success in war, had already made him regarded, particularly near the seat of his victories, as the invincible Alexander of his country, and believing that he could and would preserve them in safety, or lead them to victory, the inhabitants were content to put all their strength, pecuniary and physical, at his disposal. Confident in his own energies, he took, with a firm and unwavering step, the perilous post assigned him; satisfied that his own breast should be the first to meet the shock which menaced his country. He made no calculation how to play his part, so that, in case of success, he should have all the honour; while, in case of failure, he could plead some order from a distant superior, or some disobedience of a subordinate, to cover his disgrace. Looking with a single eye to the success of his cause, he forgot, for the time, the fatigues, the dangers, and responsibilities to which he exposed himself. When it was ascertained

The British are
off Ship Island.

that the enemy, with sixty sail of vessels, were off Ship Island, Jackson forgot no measure which might increase his military force, or make it more effective, or that put at his disposal more labouring hands, in the building of defences. The motley population of New Orleans, the slaves, the free people of colour, Frenchmen, Spaniards, and Americans, all were employed. Like a ship in a storm, all were occupied, but most, the commander.

The enemy had passed into lake Borgne. A naval force, consisting of several small vessels, under Lieut. Jones, met them at one of the straits which connect that lake with the Ponchartrain. The British, being provided with a great number of boats, sent forty-three, with twelve hundred men, against the American flotilla, which was manned with only one hundred and eighty men. After a gallant defence, in

Dec. 13.
Capture of the
American flotilla
on lake
Borgne.

which Lieut. Jones sunk several of their barges, and was supposed to have slain a great number of their men, he was compelled to surrender his fleet to the superior force of the assailants. The loss of this flotilla, which had been supposed adequate to defend the passes, increased the danger which threatened New Orleans. Having reason to believe that there were persons in the city, who carried intelligence to the enemy, an embargo was laid for three days. That not an idle hand might be found, the prisons were disgorged, on condition that the pri-

soners should labour in the ranks. La Fitte and the Barratarians arrived, and were employed. To keep in order and direct the energies of such a mass, Gen. Jackson judged that the strong arm of military control would alone be effectual. The danger of the times was extreme ; it was a case of preservation or destruction, which a few days must decide, and the general took the daring responsibility of proclaiming martial law.

Martial law proclaimed at New Orleans.

On the morning of the 22d of December, three thousand British troops, under Gen. Kean, landed at the head of lake Borgne, and at two o'clock, after making prisoners of a small advanced party of Americans, they posted themselves about nine miles below New Orleans.

Dec. 23.

The British land below New Orleans, where they repulse the Americans.

Gen. Jackson lost no time in preparing to meet them. Apprehending that they would pass the strait from lake Borgne to lake Ponchartrain, and thus make a double attack, he posted part of his force, under Gen. Carroll, so as to intercept their approach in that direction. At five on the afternoon of the 23d, Gen. Jackson, accompanied by Gen. Coffee, having the co-operation of the Caroline, an armed vessel, attacked the enemy in their position on the bank of the river. The charge of the Americans was bravely made, but the British troops maintained their position. A thick fog coming on, Gen. Jackson, whose men were now, for the first time, acting in concert, deemed it prudent to draw off his army. Having rested on the field, he withdrew on the morning of the 24th, to a stronger position, two miles nearer the city. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred in killed, wounded, and missing ; that of the British, two hundred and twenty-four killed, besides a large number of wounded.

The Americans fortify themselves nearer the city.

In the discretion with which Gen. Jackson now took his position, and the diligence, care, and activity with which he fortified it, consists much of the merit of his defence of New Orleans. His camp occupied both banks of the Mississippi. On the left was a parapet of a thousand yards in length, in the construction of which bags of cotton were used, with a ditch in front, containing five feet of water. The right wing of the division here posted, rested on the river, and the left, on a wood which nature and art had rendered impervious. On the right bank of the river, a heavy battery enfiladed the whole front of the position on the left. The entire army were vigorously occupied in strengthening these lines.

In the meantime, the British, who had been greatly annoyed by the fire of the Caroline, constructed a battery, which, by means of hot shot set fire to the vessel, and blew her up ; she having been one hour before abandoned by her crew.

On the 25th, Sir Edward Packenham, the commander-in-chief of the

British force, accompanied by Maj. Gen. Gibbs, arrived at the British encampment with the main army, and a large body of artillery. On the 28th, Sir Edward advanced with his army and artillery, intending to force Jackson from his position. At the distance of half a mile from the American camp, he opened upon their yet unfinished works a heavy cannonade. This was met on the part of the Americans, by the broadsides of the *Louisiana*, then lying in the river, and by the fire of their batteries. After maintaining the contest for seven hours, the British commander retired with the loss of one hundred and twenty men. The loss of the Americans was inconsiderable, being only six killed and twelve wounded.

While engaged in the conflict of the 28th, Gen. Jackson was informed that plans for entering into negotiations with the enemy, were forming in the legislature of Louisiana, which was then in session. In the moment of irritation, he sent an order to Gov. Claiborne, to watch their conduct, and if such a project was disclosed, to place a military guard at the door, and confine them to their chamber. Gov. Claiborne misconstrued the order, and placed a guard which prevented their assembling.

On the morning of the first of January, the enemy having constructed batteries near the American lines, opened a heavy fire upon them, and at the same time made an attempt to turn their left flank. They were repulsed, and in the evening abandoned their position. The loss of the Americans on this occasion, was six killed and twenty-four wounded. The British were supposed to have had one hundred and twenty men killed.

On the 4th of January, Gen. Jackson received a reinforcement of twenty-five hundred Kentucky militia, under Gen. Adair. On the 6th, the British army was augmented by four thousand troops, under Gen. Lambert. Their army amounted, at this time, to fourteen thousand, while that of Gen. Jackson did not exceed six thousand.

On the 7th, the British commanders were making the most vigorous preparations for a meditated attack. With immense labour they had widened and deepened the canal from lake Borgne to the Mississippi, so that on the night of the seventh, they succeeded in getting their boats through this passage from the lake to the river.

Jan. 8.
Battle of New Orleans, and defeat of the British.

Early on the morning of the 8th, the American army was assailed by a shower of bullets and Congreve rockets. The British army, under Generals Gibbs and Kean, the whole commanded by Sir Edward Packinham, had marched in two divisions, to storm the American entrenchments. The batteries of Gen. Jackson opened a brisk fire upon them, but the

British soldiers advanced slowly, though firmly, carrying fascines and scaling ladders. The keen and practised eyes of the western marksmen were, as they advanced, selecting their victims. When the enemy were within reach of their rifles, the advanced line fired, and each brought down his man. Those behind handed a second loaded rifle as soon as the first was discharged. The plain was soon strewn with the dead, and the brave foe faltered, and retreated in confusion. Sir Edward appeared among his men, encouraging them to renew the assault, when two balls struck him, and he fell, mortally wounded. A second time the British columns advanced, and a second time retreated before the deadly fire of the Americans. Again their thinned ranks were closed, and they moved forward with desperate resolution. Generals Kean and Gibbs were now both wounded, and carried from the field, and their troops fell back. At this time, Gen. Lambert, who commanded the reserve, attempted to bring them up, but the day was irretrievably lost. The retreating columns had fallen back in disorder upon the reserve, and all his attempts to rally them were in vain.

In the meantime, the battle was raging upon the opposite side of the river. Gen. Jackson had there placed the Kentucky militia, to guard his battery and annoy the enemy. Previous to the commencement of the action, Sir Edward Pakenham had sent Col. Thornton, with a strong detachment, to make an attack upon these batteries, simultaneous with his own. Thornton was completely successful. The Kentucky militia, after having spiked the cannon, ingloriously fled, and left to the enemy the strong position which they had occupied. Gen. Lambert, now in command, and defeated on the left bank of the river, learning the success of Thornton, sent an artillery officer to examine the po-

British successful on the west bank, but cannot maintain their position.

sition, who giving it as his opinion that the post could not be securely held without two thousand men, Lambert concluded to abandon it, and accordingly ordered Col. Thornton to rejoin the main army. The disparity of loss on this occasion is utterly astonishing; that of the enemy was twenty-six hundred, while that of the Americans was but seven killed and six wounded. On the 9th, both armies returned to their former positions. From this period until the 18th, a bombardment was kept up by the British fleet at fort St. Philips, while Gen. Jackson continued to annoy the enemy with his artillery. On the night of the 18th, the British retreated, leaving behind them their wounded and artillery.

British abandon the expedition.

On the 18th of February, fort Bowyer, commanded by Major Lawrence, with a garrison amounting to three hundred and seventy, was invested by a British force, six thousand strong. Resistance against a force so greatly superior, would have been

Fort Bowyer surrenders.

unavailing, and on the 11th of March, Major Lawrence surrendered his garrison as prisoners of war.

Feb. 17. On the 17th of February, while the Americans were yet rejoicing for the victory at New Orleans, a special messenger arrived from Europe, bringing a treaty of peace, which the commissioners had concluded in the month of December, at Ghent. This treaty, which was immediately ratified by the president and senate, stipulated that all places taken during the war, should be restored, and the boundaries between the American and British dominions revised. Yet it contained no express provision against those maritime outrages on the part of Great Britain, which were the chief causes of the war. But as the orders in council had been repealed, and the motives for the impressment of seamen had ceased with the wars in Europe, these causes no longer existed in fact; although America had failed, as Europe, combined under the name of the armed neutrality, had formerly done, to compel England to the formal relinquishment of the principles on which she founds her arrogant claims.

Cyane and Levant captured. After the promulgation of peace, news was received of the farther success of the American navy. On the 20th of February, the Constitution, then under the command of Captain Stewart, when off the island of Madeira, fell in with and captured the Cyane and Levant, after a severe action of forty minutes. The total number of killed and wounded on board the Constitution, was fifteen; that of the enemy, thirty-eight.

Penguin captured. On the 23d of March, an engagement took place off the coast of Brazil, between the United States sloop Hornet, Captain Biddle, commander, and the British brig Penguin, which had sailed from England in September, for the purpose of capturing the Wasp. After twenty-two minutes, the Penguin surrendered. Her loss was fourteen killed and twenty-eight wounded.

Massacre at Dartmoor. On the 6th of April, a barbarous massacre was committed on the garrison at Dartmoor prison, in England, upon the Americans who were there confined. The attack was made upon these defenceless men, without any provocation, and the lives of sixty-three most wantonly and inhumanly sacrificed. The British government were not, however, implicated in the transaction.

SECTION XIII.

Soon after the ratification of peace with Great Britain the United States declared war against Algiers. The Algerine government had violated the treaty of 1795. In 1812, under pretence that the cargo of the ship *Allegany*, which had just arrived with naval stores, for the payment of tribute, did not contain such an assortment of articles as he had a right to expect, the Dey demanded additional tribute to be paid in money. After several ineffectual attempts to negotiate, Colonel Lear, the American consul, made arrangements for paying the demand, and sailed for the United States. Immediately after his departure, the Dey commenced hostilities upon the commerce of the United States in the Mediterranean. These outrages were not chastised at the time, on account of the war with Great Britain.

War having been declared with Algiers, two squadrons were fitted out, under Commodores Decatur and Bainbridge. Commodore Decatur sailed from New York in May, and proceeding up the Mediterranean, captured, on the 17th of June, an Algerine frigate, and on the 19th, off Cape Palos, an Algerine brig, carrying twenty-two guns. From Palos, Decatur sailed for Algiers. The Dey, intimidated, signed a treaty of peace, which was highly honourable and advantageous to the Americans. Decatur then proceeded to Tunis and Tripoli, where he obtained satisfaction for the unprovoked violation of the treaties subsisting between those governments and the United States. On his arrival at Gibraltar, Commodore Decatur joined the squadron under Commodore Bainbridge, to whom he resigned the command. Bainbridge, with this additional force, made his appearance before Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, but seeing no disposition to violate the treaties, he returned to the United States. This war had the beneficial effect of humbling and chastising a lawless band of pirates, who had long been the inveterate scourges of the Christian world. Expressions of submission were obtained from these powers by the United States, such as had never been obtained by any other nation.

War with
Algiers.
Decatur and
Bainbridge sent
to the Medi-
terranean.

Peace with
the piratical
powers.

With a view to the tranquillity of the western and northwestern frontiers, measures were taken to obtain a peace with several tribes of Indians who had been hostile to the United States. Some of their chiefs met at Detroit, on the 6th of September, and readily acceded to a renewal of the former treaties of friendship.

Treaties with
the Indians.

At the close of the war, the regular army of the United States was

reduced to 10,000 men. For the better protection of the country in case of another war, congress appropriated a large sum for fortifying the sea coast and inland frontiers, and for the increase of the navy.

1816.

National
bank.

In April, 1816, an act was passed by congress, to establish a national bank, with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars.

Fort Appa-
lachicola
destroyed.

In August, fort Appalachicola, which was occupied by runaway negroes and hostile Indians, was destroyed by a detachment of American troops. More than one

hundred were killed, and the remainder were taken prisoners.

Treaty with
the Chicka-
saws, &c.

In September, General Jackson held a treaty with the Chickasaws, Choctaws, and Cherokees. He made purchases of their lands particularly favourable to the wishes

and security of the frontier settlements. The tranquillity which was restored among the Indians themselves, contributed to favour the recommencement of the work of civilization, which, previous to the war, had made considerable progress.

In December, the Indiana territory was admitted into the union as a state.

As early as the year 1790, establishments for spinning cotton, and for manufacturing coarse cotton cloths, were attempted in the state of Rhode Island. They were at first on a small scale; but as the cloths found a ready market, the number and extent of these manufactories gradually increased. The embarrassments to which commerce was subjected some years previous to the war, had increased the demand for American goods, and led the people to reflect upon the importance of rendering themselves independent of the manufactures of foreign nations. During the war, large capitals were vested in manufacturing establishments, from which the capitalists realized a handsome profit. But at the close of the war, the English having made great improvements in manufacturing, and being able to sell their goods at a much lower rate than the American manufacturers could afford, the country was immediately filled by importations from England. The American manufactures being in their infancy, could not resist the shock; and many large establishments failed. The manufacturers then petitioned government for protection, to enable them to withstand the competition; and in consequence of this petition, the committee on commerce and manufactures, in 1816, recommended that an additional duty should be

Manufactures
encouraged by
a new tariff.

laid on imported goods. A new tariff was accordingly formed, by which the double imposts which had been laid during the war, were removed, and a small increase

of duty was laid upon some fabrics, such as coarse cotton goods. The opposition to the tariff, from the commercial interest, and in some sections of the country, from the agricultural, was so great that nothing

effectual was at that time done for the encouragement of manufactures, and the question of its expediency is still considered as of the first importance.

A society for colonizing the free blacks of the United States, was first proposed in 1816, and was soon after formed. It was not under the direction of government, but was patronized by many of the first citizens in all parts of the union. The society purchased land in Africa, where they yearly removed considerable numbers of the free blacks from America. Their object was, by removing the free negroes, to diminish the black population of the United States; and by establishing a colony in Africa, to prevent the traffic in slaves which then existed. It would also give those owners of slaves who were desirous of liberating them, an opportunity of doing so, without exposing the country to the dangers apprehended from a numerous free black population.

Colonization society formed.

Mr. Madison's second term of office having expired, he followed the examples of his predecessors, and declined a re-election. James Monroe was elected president, and Daniel D. Tompkins, vice president; and, March 4th, 1817, they entered upon their official duties. During the summer of this year, Mr. Monroe visited all the northern and eastern states, and was received with every demonstration of affection and respect.

Mr. Monroe inaugurated.

A treaty was, this year, concluded by commissioners appointed by the president of the United States, and the chiefs of the Wyandot, Delaware, Shawanese, Seneca, Ottoway, Chippewa, and Pottowattamie Indians, by which these tribes ceded to the United States all lands to which they had any title within the limits of Ohio. The Indians were, at their option, to remain on the ceded lands, subject to the laws of the United States.

Indians cede their lands in Ohio to the United States.

The territory of Mississippi was, this year, admitted into the union of the states.

About this period, a band of adventurers, who pretended to act under the authority of the South American states, took possession of Amelia island, near the boundary of Georgia, with the avowed design of invading Florida. This island having been the subject of negotiation with the government of Spain, as an indemnity for losses by spoliations, or in exchange for lands of equal value beyond the Mississippi, the measure excited a sentiment of surprise and disapprobation; which was increased, when it was found that the island was made a channel for the illicit introduction of slaves from Africa into the United States, an asylum for fugitive slaves from the neighbouring states, and a port for smuggling of every kind. An establishment of a similar nature had previously been formed on an island in the gulf of Mexico, on the coast of Texas; which was also a rendezvous for smugglers. Privateers

were also equipped here, which gave great annoyance to the commerce of the United States. These marauders were found, however, to be merely private adventurers, unauthorized by any government ; and the United States sent out a force, which took possession of the islands, and soon put a stop to their illicit trade.

The political fouds which had, since the revolution, occasioned so much animosity, were now gradually subsiding ; and it was an object with the administration, to remove old party prejudices, and promote union among the people. A spirit of improvement was spreading over the country ; roads and canals were constructed in almost all parts of the Union ; and the facilities for travelling and conveying merchandise and produce were continually increasing. These improvements were, however, made by the state governments ; among which, the wealthy state of New-York, at whose head was the illustrious De Witt Clinton,

A spirit of internal improvement pervades the union.

took the lead. Congress caught the spirit of the times, and manifested a desire to employ the resources of the nation for these objects ; and though no doubt arose as to the expediency of such a course, yet the power of that

body for carrying on such a system of internal improvement, was questioned and debated. It was the opinion of President Monroe, that the general government had not this power, and could not obtain it, except by an amendment of the constitution, which he recommended to the states. Military roads had been opened in the late war, but it was by order of the war department. One of these extended from Plattsburg to Sackett's Harbour, another from Detroit to the foot of the Miami rapids. The extra pay to the soldiers, engaged in these works, was provided for by congress, in a specific appropriation. Congress had, however, caused the great Cumberland road to be made, connecting, through the seat of government, the eastern with the western states, and passing over some of the highest mountains in the Union. But this undertaking was not decisive of the great question respecting the right of congress ; as it was made under peculiar circumstances. An article of compact between the United States and the state of Ohio, under which that state came into the Union, provided that such a road should be made ; the expense being defrayed by money arising from the sale of public lands within that state. As the road passed through Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, it was thought necessary to obtain the sanction of those several states. Accordingly, the subject was brought before their legislatures, and an act passed, approving the route, and providing for the purchase of the land. The final decision of congress was, that the constitution, in its present state, did not grant to them the power of expending the revenue for internal improvements. Under several of the

State governments commenced

state governments, however, roads and canals were commenced ; the most extensive of the latter being two in

the state of New-York, one leading from lake Erie, and the other from lake Champlain, to the Hudson river.

mence roads
and canals.

The expense of these canals was defrayed entirely by the state of New-York.

In the first year of Mr. Monroe's administration, an arrangement was concluded with the British government, for the reduction of the naval force of Great Britain and the United States, on the lakes; and it was provided, that neither party should keep in service on lake Ontario or Champlain, more than one armed vessel, and on lake Erie, or any of the upper lakes, more than two, to be armed with one gun only.

Naval force is
reduced.

For the security of the inland frontiers of the United States, military posts were established, at the mouth of the St. Peter's, on the Mississippi, and at the mouth of the Yellow Stone river, on the Missouri, above eighteen hundred miles above its junction with the Mississippi.

Military posts
established.

During the year 1818, the United States became engaged in a war with the Seminole Indians, who occupied the lands lying on the confines of the United States and Florida; the greater part, however, lying within the dominions of the king of Spain. Outlaws from the Creek nation, negroes who had fled from their masters in the United States, and the Seminole Indians, had united in committing depredations upon the lives and property of the citizens of the United States. For many months, the southern frontier was exposed to savage and bloody incursions; and the most horrid massacres had become so frequent, that the inhabitants were obliged to flee from their homes for security. The hostile spirit of the Indians was strengthened by Arbuthnot and Ambrister, two English emissaries, who had taken up their residence among them, for the purposes of trade. They were also incited by one Francis, whom they regarded as a prophet. In December, 1817, a detachment of forty men, under the command of Lieut. Scott, was sent to the mouth of the river Appalachicola, to assist in removing some military stores to fort Scott. The party in returning, were fired upon by a body of Indians, who lay in ambush upon the bank of the river, and six only escaped. Lieut. Scott was one of the first who fell. Notwithstanding the offenders were demanded by Gen. Gaines, the commanding officer on that frontier, the chiefs refused to deliver them up to punishment. Gen. Jackson, with a body of Tennesseans, was now ordered to the protection of the southern frontier. In several skirmishes with the Indians, he defeated and dispersed them; and persuaded that the Spaniards were active in fomenting the Seminole war, and furnishing the Indians with supplies, he entered Florida, and took possession of fort St. Marks and Pensacola.

1818.

The commence-
ment of the Se-
minole war.

Gen. Jackson
takes St. Marks
and Pensacola.

He took as prisoners, Arbuthnot, Ambrister, and the Indian prophet, Francis.

Trial of Arbuthnot and Ambrister. A court martial was called, at which Gen. Gaines presided, for the trial of Arbuthnot and Ambrister. Arbuthnot was tried on the following charges ;—"for exciting and stirring up the Creek Indians to war against the United States and her citizens, he being a subject of Great Britain, with whom the United States are at peace." Second, "for acting as a spy, aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war." He was found guilty of these charges, omitting the words, "acting as a spy," and sentenced to be hung. Ambrister was tried on similar charges, and sentenced to be shot.

The treaty between the United States and Spain stipulated, that the Spanish should keep such forces as would enable them to restrain the hostilities of the Indians, inhabiting their colonies. It was the refusal of Spain to do this, which produced the necessity of carrying the war into its provinces. The massacres committed by the savages, left no

Nov. alternative but to suffer the frontier settlements of Georgia to remain exposed to the mercy of those barbarians, or to carry the war into Florida. Pensacola and St. Marks restored to Spain. **St. Marks** were restored to Spain, by order of the president.

In April of this year, the governor of Georgia received information that the Phlelemmes and Hoppones, tribes of Indians, had shown indications of a hostile disposition, and that several murders had been committed by them. He accordingly ordered Capt. Wright, with a company of militia, to go to the relief of the inhabitants in that part of the country. The Creeks were at this time friendly, and many of them assisted Gen. Jackson in the Seminole war. Notwithstanding this, Capt. Wright, instead of defending the frontier from the Phlelemmes, at-

The Cheraw village destroyed. tacked the Cheraw village, which belonged to the Creeks. Their warriors being with Gen. Jackson, they were unable to defend the town, and Capt. Wright took possession of it, murdered many of the Indians, some of their women, and reduced their dwellings to ashes. This treatment enraged the Creeks, and it was expected that they would immediately retaliate. Measures were, however, taken by government, to redress the injuries inflicted upon them, and they became satisfied. It seemed doubtful whether Capt. Wright's proceedings arose from a misapprehension of the point of attack, or not. He was arrested by government, but escaped from prison.

The congress of this year passed a bill to admit Illinois territory into the Union, by the name of the state of Illinois.

Treaties with Great Britain and Sweden. Treaties of commerce were, this year, concluded with Great Britain and Sweden. In the treaty with the former,

the northern boundary of the United States, from the lake of the Woods to the Stony Mountains, was fixed.

Congress passed a law, abolishing internal duties ; also an act providing for the indigent officers and soldiers of the revolution, by which every officer, who had served nine months at any period of the revolutionary war, and whose annual income did not exceed one hundred dollars, received a pension of twenty dollars a month ; and every needy private soldier who had served that length of time, received eight.

Indigent officers
and soldiers of
the revolution
provided for.

This year, the Chickasaws ceded to the government of the United States, all their lands, west of the Tennessee river, in the states of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Indian affairs.

The condition of those tribes living within the territories of the United States, now attracted the attention of the government, and a humane policy dictated its measures. The sum of 10,000 dollars annually, was appropriated for the purpose of establishing schools among them, and to promote, in other ways, their civilization. By means of the missionary societies, already established in the United States, missionaries were supported among the Indians, and success, in many instances, crowned their efforts.

1819.

Alabama territory was this year admitted into the union of the states ; and the territory of Arkansas separated from Missouri territory.

On the 23d of February, 1819, a treaty was negotiated at Washington, between John Quincy Adams, secretary of state, and the Spanish minister, by which Spain ceded to the United States, East and West Florida, and the adjacent islands. The government of the United States agreed to exonerate Spain from the demands which their citizens had against that nation, on account of injuries and spoliations ; and it was stipulated that congress should satisfy these claims, to an amount not exceeding five millions of dollars. Three commissioners were to be appointed by the president, with the advice of the senate, to examine and decide upon the amount and validity of all claims included by the treaty. The contracting parties renounced all claims to indemnities for any of the recent acts of their respective officers in Florida. This treaty was ratified by the president and senate of the United States, and sent to Spain, but the king very unexpectedly refused to sanction it. Don Onis, the Spanish minister, was recalled, and another minister was sent to the United States, to make complaints of the unfriendly policy on the part of the American government, and to demand explanations respecting the imputed system of hostility on the part of the American citizens, against the subjects and dominion of the king of Spain. Explanations were made, and it was satisfactorily shown, by Mr. Adams, the secretary, that there had been no system of hostility pursued by the citizens of the United States.

Cession of
Florida.

CONTINUATION OF THE HISTORY.

The cession } FROM 1819, { of Florida.

TO THE

FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

1826.

SECTION I.

1820. In October, 1820, the Spanish monarch ratified the
 ———— treaty between France and Spain, but did not give to the
 United States possession of Florida until July, eighteen hundred and
 twenty-one.

A petition was presented to congress this year, from the territory of
 Missouri, praying for authority to form a state government, and to be
 admitted into the Union. A bill was accordingly introduced for that
 purpose, and with an amendment, prohibiting slavery within the new
 state, passed the house of representatives, but was arrested in the
 senate.

The district of Maine also presented a memorial to congress, praying
 to be separated from Massachusetts, to be authorised to form its own
 constitution, and to be admitted into the Union, on an equal footing with
 the other states. The two bills for the admission of Maine and Missouri
 were joined, but not without much opposition from the ad-
 vocates of the restriction in the Missouri bill. Upon this
 subject, the members of congress were divided into two
 parties; those from the non-slaveholding states were in fa-
 vour of the restriction, while those from the south warmly
 opposed it. Much debate took place, and at no time had the parties in
 the congress of the United States been so marked by a geographical
 division, or so much actuated by feelings dangerous to the union of the
 states, as at this time. Nor was the seat of government the only place

Missouri ques-
 tion, united in
 congress with
 the petition from
 Maine.

where this subject was discussed ; in all parts of the Union it attracted the attention of the people. Many of the northern states called meetings, and published spirited resolutions, expressive of their fears of perpetuating slavery, and their approbation of the restriction.

The members of congress from the south opposed the restriction, partly on the ground of self defence. They did not consider that the admission of Missouri, without any restriction, would tend, in any degree, to perpetuate slavery. It would not, they contended, be the means of increasing the number of slaves within the states, but of removing some of those that already existed, from one state to another. They maintained, that it would be a dangerous and despotic measure of the general government, and one that would infringe upon the sovereignties of the states ; that such a condition was inconsistent with the treaty by which the territory was ceded to the United States ; and finally, they insinuated the danger of a dissolution of the Union, if the friends of the restriction persisted.

The advocates of the measure maintained that the constitution gave to congress the right of admitting states with or without restrictions, and that no state had ever yet been admitted without any, and that the ordinance of 1787 established this right. In proof of this it was urged, that when North Carolina ceded to the United States that part of her territory which now includes the state of Tennessee, she made the grant upon the express condition that congress should make no regulation tending to the emancipation of slaves. When Georgia ceded to the United States the Mississippi territory, the articles of agreement which provided for its admission as a state, on the conditions of the ordinance of 1787, expressly excepted that article which forbids slavery. It was also maintained that to strike out the restriction from this bill, would inevitably tend to perpetuate slavery, and to entail this greatest evil upon the new state, besides increasing to the Union the mischiefs arising from unequal representation. After much discussion, a compromise was effected, and a bill passed for the admission of Missouri without any restriction, but with the inhibition of slavery throughout the territories of the United States, north of 36° 30' north latitude. Thus was the most dangerous question ever agitated in congress, disposed of in an amicable manner.

The bill for the admission of Maine passed without restriction or amendment ; and in 1820, Maine became independent of Massachusetts, and assumed her proper rank as one of the United States.

Maine admitted to the Union.

Missouri was not declared independent until August, 1821. Previously to the passage of the bill for its admission, the people of Missouri formed a state constitution ; a provision of which required the legislature to pass a law “ to

1821.

Missouri admitted to the Union.

prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in the state." When the constitution was presented to congress, this provision was strenuously opposed. The contest occupied a great part of the session, but Missouri was finally admitted, on the condition that no laws should be passed, by which any free citizens of the United States should be prevented from enjoying those rights within that state, to which they were entitled by the constitution of the United States.

Mr. Monroe re-elected.

This year Mr. Monroe entered upon his second term of office, having been re-elected to the presidency by nearly a unanimous vote. Mr. Tompkins was also continued in the vice presidency.

1822.

A territorial government was, this year, established in Florida.

Treaty with France.

In June, a convention of navigation and commerce, on terms of reciprocal and equal advantage, was concluded between France and the United States.

The ports of the West India islands were, about this time, opened to the United States, by an act of the British parliament.

Alarming increase of piracy.

The American commerce, in the West Indian seas, had, for several years, suffered severely from the depredations committed by pirates. Great quantities of property were seized by these marauders; and their captives were often murdered in the most inhuman manner. They respected no law, and the flag of no nation. An event occurred this year, which excited general attention, and showed that the evil had become so alarming as to call loudly for the strong arm of government to interpose for the protection of its citizens. The Alligator, a United States' schooner, was about entering the harbour of Matanzas, when information was received that two American vessels, which the pirates had just captured, were lying a short distance from that place. The Alligator was immediately ordered to their relief. An engagement with the pirates ensued, in which the Americans were victorious. They found and recaptured no less than five American vessels, which were in possession of the pirates. They also took one piratical schooner; but Allen, the brave commander of the Alligator, was wounded in the engagement, and died in a few hours. His death excited much feeling throughout the United States.

The pirates, making the island of Cuba their general place of rendezvous, carried their depredations to such an extent, that it was extremely dangerous for vessels to enter or leave the port of Havana. Congress at length passed a law, appropriating a sum of money to fit

1823.

Com. Porter sent to the gulf of Mexico.

out an expedition for the suppression of piracy. Com. Porter, to whom was given the command of this expedition, sailed for the West Indies, and after touching at Porto Rico, arrived at Matanzas, with a squadron, con-

sisting of a steam frigate, eight schooners, and five barges. No captures were made, however, by this squadron, as the pirates had obtained knowledge of their movements; but the object of their going out was accomplished in the protection afforded to commerce. The American squadron remained near the islands, and afforded convoys to merchant vessels; and in consequence of this protection of the sea, the pirates were compelled to remain upon the islands, where they committed depredations upon the inhabitants. One vessel only was taken from the Americans during this period, and that was recaptured by Com. Porter.

In the message which President Monroe this year sent to congress, he invited their attention to the expediency of recognizing the independence of the South American republics. He stated, that throughout the contest between those colonies and the parent country, the United States had remained neutral, and had fulfilled, with the utmost impartiality, all the obligations incident to that character. Some time had elapsed since the provinces had declared themselves independent nations, and had enjoyed that independence, free from invasion. For three years, Spain had not sent a single corps of troops into any part of that country. The delays which had been observed in making a decision on this important subject, would afford an unequivocal proof of the respect entertained by the United States for Spain, and of their determination not to interfere with her rights. Mr. Monroe remarked, that "in proposing this measure, it is not contemplated to change thereby, in the slightest manner, the friendly relations with either of the parties, but to observe in all respects as heretofore, should the war be continued, the most perfect neutrality between them." The committee on foreign relations, to whom this question was referred, reported in favour of this measure, and recommended that a sum should be appropriated to enable the president to give due effect to such recognition. Ministers plenipotentiary were appointed to Mexico, Buenos Ayres, Columbia, and Chili.

1822.

United States
acknowledge
the independ-
ence of the South
American re-
publics.

Articles of convention for the suppression of the African slave trade, were, this year, subscribed at London, by plenipotentiaries appointed for this purpose, from the United States and Great Britain. These articles authorized the commissioned officers of each nation, to capture and condemn the ships of the other, which should be concerned in the illicit traffic of slaves.

Slave trade.

Ever since the year 1816, the tariff had attracted the attention of the people throughout the Union, and from time to time the subject had been brought before congress; but, with the exception of the small protection afforded to coarse cotton cloths, nothing had yet been

1824.

The tariff ques-
tion again agita-
ted.

done for the

encouragement of American manufactures. Notwithstanding the pressure of the times, and the many disadvantages under which they laboured, the manufacturers of cotton, after they recovered from the first shock, had proved successful. Excepting fine fabrics, which were not manufactured to any extent in America, domestic cottons almost supplied the country, and considerable quantities were exported to South America. Establishments for printing calicoes had been erected in a few places, and in some instances the manufacture of lace had been attempted.

In the support of these establishments, independent of the protection of government, and in defiance of the obstacles which opposed them, individuals and manufacturing companies displayed great energy and perseverance. During this period, the friends of manufactures had increased in numbers, and in zeal for the cause. This year the subject of a new tariff was again brought before congress, but was vehemently opposed. The grounds of the opposition to the bill were, that it would injure the commerce and agriculture of the country, and by lessening the public revenue, compel a resort to a system of excise and taxation. That it would diminish the exports of the country, as other nations would not purchase articles of any kind from us, unless the produce of their industry was received in exchange. That the country was not prepared for the successful establishment of manufactures, on account of the high price of labour; and that manufactures would, under a favourable concurrence of circumstances, flourish without the protection of government.

The friends of a new tariff replied, that a dependence upon the internal resources of the country was the only true policy of our government; and that the protection desired for manufactures, far from injuring, would prove beneficial to both commerce and agriculture. It would create a home market, without which the agriculturist would not receive the just reward of his labours. New and extensive establishments would arise, by means of which, thousands of persons, now idle, might find employment, and in the meantime keep the resources of the country at home. It would not diminish the exportations, unless to Europe, where little besides the raw materials are carried; and by the applications of industry, new articles of exportation might be multiplied, more valuable than the raw materials, and by which we should be indemnified for any losses thus incurred. They considered it by no means certain that it would lessen the public revenue; the augmentation of duty would compensate for the diminution in the quantity of goods imported. Experience proved that manufactures needed protection, and that such had ever been the policy of those governments where the manufacturing interest flourished; and in proof of this, they pointed to the steady course of the English government. Many of the

friends of the tariff, however, conceded, that if all nations would unite in a system of free, unshackled trade, it would probably produce the best possible state of things ; but they contended, that as the United States must suffer from laws made by other governments to protect and favour their own manufactures, it was but just that the citizens of the United States should receive a like protection and preference from their own government. After much discussion, the bill, with some amendments, passed. It proved effectual in affording the desired protection to cotton goods ; but the question is still agitated in favour of manufactures of other kinds, and the manufacturers of wool are zealously endeavouring to obtain a similar protection.*

A new tariff
formed.

SECTION II.

ON the 15th of August, 1824, Gen. La Fayette, the friend of America, arrived in the harbour of New-York. He did not proceed to the city, but stopped at the mansion of the vice president, on Staten Island. Congress, participating in the warm feeling of esteem and gratitude which pervaded the whole nation, had given him an invitation to visit America, and had proposed sending a national ship for his conveyance. He accepted the invitation, although he declined the offer of a national vessel.

Gen. La Fayette
revisits Amer-
ica.

When information was received in the city of New-York of his arrival, a committee of the corporation, and a great number of distinguished citizens, immediately proceeded to Staten Island, to behold and welcome the former benefactor of their country, now its illustrious guest.

Arrangements were made, by the committee, for his visit to New-York, which was to take place the following day. A splendid escort of steam boats, gaily decorated with the flags of every nation, and bearing thousands of citizens, brought the venerated Fayette to the view of the assembled crowds at New-York. The feelings of Fayette, at revisiting again, in prosperity, the country which he had sought and made his own in the darkest adversity, were at times overpowering, and melted him to tears. Esteemed as he was for his virtues, consecrated by his sufferings, and his constancy in the cause in which in his youth he had embarked, the philan-

He arrives in
New-York.

* This protection has been afforded, by an act of congress, May 19, 1823, by which additional duties were laid not only on wool and woollens, but also on iron and many of its fabrics ; lead, hemp and its fabrics, distilled spirits, molasses, silk stuffs, window glass, and cottons.

thropist of any country could not view him without an awe mingled with tenderness; but to Americans there was besides a deep feeling of gratitude for his services, and an associated remembrance of those with whom he had lived; and there seemed to come back to us, not only La Fayette, but Washington, and Greene, and the heroes of the days of American glory; and the feeling of communing with the illustrious dead, as well as with the most virtuous of the living, filled our hearts, and excited us to the highest pitch of enthusiasm.

The thousands assembled to meet Fayette at New-York, manifested their joy at beholding him, by shouts, acclamations, and tears. He rode uncovered from the battery to the City Hall, receiving and returning the affectionate gratulations of the multitude. At the City Hall, the officers of the city, and many citizens, were presented to him, and he was welcomed by an address from the mayor. His meeting with a few grey-headed veterans of the revolution, his old companions in arms, was a scene truly pathetic. The deep affection they evinced, their constant recurrence to the time when they fought together, few could witness without tears.

Deputations from Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Haven, and many other cities, arrived in New-York, with invitations for him to honour those places with his presence. After remaining a few days in New-York, he proceeded through New Haven and Providence on his way to Boston. A deputation from Boston met him on his entrance into Massachusetts, and accompanied him to the seat of the governor, in Roxbury. There they received an escort of eight hundred citizens from Boston; the mayor and corporation awaiting his arrival at the city lines. The pupils of the public schools, both male and female, were arranged in two lines on the side of the common, under the care of their respective teachers, and through these beautiful lines the procession passed.

From Boston he proceeded to Portsmouth, to visit the navy yard. Orders had been issued by the president to all the military posts, to receive him with the honour due to the highest officer in the American service. He returned to Boston, and from thence to New-York, through Worcester and Hartford. On his return to New-York, a splendid fete was given at Castle Garden, and every demonstration of joy continued to be shown. From New-York, the general proceeded to Albany and Troy, calling at West Point, and several other places on the river. He next passed through New Jersey, and visited Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Yorktown, and Richmond. These places vied with New-York and Boston in the splendour with which they received the beloved defender of their country. He returned to Washington during the session of congress, and remained there several weeks. Congress voted him the

Makes the tour
of the eastern
states.

From Boston
he goes through
New-York to
Washington.

sum of two hundred thousand dollars, and a township of land which was located in Florida, as a remuneration, in part, of his services during the revolutionary war, and as a testimony of their gratitude.

About the last of February, La Fayette commenced his tour through the southern and western states. From Washington he went to Richmond, passed through North and South Carolina, taking in his route, Raleigh, Fayetteville, and Charleston, to Savannah. He travelled through Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, to New Orleans; and from thence proceeded up the Mississippi as far as St. Louis, visiting the principal places on both sides of the river. He returned to the Ohio, passed through Nashville; Louisville, Frankfort, and Lexington in Kentucky; Cincinnati, and other towns in Ohio; Wheeling and Pittsburg, in Pennsylvania, to Buffalo; through the state of New-York to Albany; and from thence, across Massachusetts, to Boston. He arrived in season to participate in the ceremony of laying the corner stone of a monument which was to commemorate the battle of Bunker's Hill. Leaving Boston, he proceeded to Portland, in Maine; from thence, through Concord in New Hampshire, Windsor and Montpelier, to Burlington, in Vermont. From Burlington he crossed to Plattsburg; and passing down lake Champlain and the Hudson, arrived again in New-York, where he united in the celebration of the anniversary of American independence. Then taking his leave of the eastern and northern states, he returned to Washington, where he remained until his departure from the continent.

1825.

Makes the tour of the southern and western states.

A more interesting scene can hardly be imagined, than was presented in his visit to Mount Vernon, to the tomb of his departed friend, of him whose praise is dear to the heart of every American. He was accompanied by several gentlemen, relatives of Judge Washington's family. When he arrived at the tomb, Mr. Custis, the adopted child of Washington, presented him with a ring containing a portion of the locks from that venerated head, which for so many toilsome days, and unpillowed nights, had devoted all its energies to that cause for which La Fayette had toiled and bled with kindred devotion.

Visits the tomb of Washington.

On the departure of Gen. La Fayette from Washington, the president expressed to him the happiness the nation had experienced in receiving such a guest; its attachment to him; the grateful remembrance of his valuable services; and, in behalf of the nation, he bade him an affectionate adieu. A new frigate, named the Brandywine, in memory of the battle in which Gen. La Fayette was wounded, was deputed by government to convey him to his native land, whither he was followed by the benedictions of thousands, who would gladly have detained him in America.

He takes leave of America, and returns to France.

La Fayette's whole progress through the United States had been one continued triumph—the most illustrious of any which history records. No captives were chained to his triumphal car; no mortification of a defeated rival was to heighten his greatness. His glory was the happiness and prosperity which his services had gained for the country of his adoption; his captives, the enchained affections of an almost adoring people.

During Mr. Monroe's administration, America enjoyed profound peace. Sixty millions of her national debt were discharged. The Floridas were peaceably acquired, and the western limits fixed at the Pacific Ocean. Internal taxes were repealed, the military establishment reduced to its narrowest limits of efficiency, the organization of the army improved, the independence of the South American nations recognized, progress made in the suppression of the slave trade, and the civilization of the Indians advanced.

Mr. Monroe's second term of office having expired, John Quincy Adams was elected president. Four among the principal citizens of the republic had been candidates for the office, and voted for by the electoral college. These were John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and William H. Crawford. The electors were divided, and no choice being made by them, a president, according to the constitution, was to be chosen by the house of representatives, from the three candidates whose number of votes stood highest; who were

Mr. Adams chosen president by the house of representatives.

Messrs. Adams, Jackson, and Crawford. Mr. Adams was chosen. This was the first election by the house of representatives, in the case contemplated by the constitution, where there was no one of the candidates preferred by a majority of the electors.*

Many fears had been expressed, that whenever such a case could occur, it would be attended with unpleasant circumstances; but the result was far different. That an event, such as had torn asunder the most powerful kingdoms, should have taken place in the congress of the United States, without the least commotion, showed the respect which that body felt for its own dignity, and their sense of the solemnity of the obligation which bound them to preserve inviolate the constitution of their country.

He is inaugurated.

Mr. Adams was inaugurated March 4th, 1825. In his inaugural address, he declared the course he should pursue was that marked out by his predecessor. He observed that there remained one effort of magnanimity to be made by the

* The case of the election of Mr. Jefferson was by no means such a one as was contemplated by the framers of the constitution, in its provision for an election by the house of representatives. Mr. Jefferson was preferred by a majority of the electors, and it was merely from an unforeseen defect in the constitution, which was amended as soon as perceived, and of which advantage was taken by his political enemies, that Mr. Jefferson's election was not decided by the college of electors.

individuals throughout the nation, who had heretofore followed the standards of political party;—it was that of discarding every remnant of rancour against each other, of embracing as countrymen and friends, and of yielding to talents and virtue alone, that confidence, which, in times of contention for principle, was bestowed only upon those who bore the badge of party communion.

A treaty of commerce and navigation, with the republic of Colombia, was ratified in 1825. The basis of this treaty was laid in the principle of entire and unqualified reciprocity, and the mutual obligation of the parties to place each other on the footing of the most favoured nation.

A treaty is made with Colombia.

In the first message of President Adams to congress, he announced the invitation which had been received by the government of the United States from the South American republics, to send representatives to the congress which they had called at Panama. This invitation had been accepted by the president, on condition that the nomination of commissioners should be approved by the senate. The congress of Panama was to be merely an assembly of diplomatic agents, vested with no powers, except to negotiate and discuss; they were to be deputed by governments, whose constitutions require that all foreign contracts and treaties shall receive ratification from the organic body at home, before they can go into effect. The relations which the United States held with the South American nations, were very different from those which existed with the European powers. They were united by a similarity in the forms of their governments: the new republics looked upon the republic of America, as having led the way in the cause of freedom, and they expected from her, friendship in their cause. At the same time they desired nothing which would violate her strict neutrality, or give just cause of umbrage to any other power. The commercial relations existing between the United States and those nations, were even now important; and the interest of them to this country, would be continually increasing. Subjects in which the United States were deeply interested, were to be discussed at Panama, and it was highly necessary that the wishes of the United States should there be made known.

Discussion of the mission to Panama.

Some of the objects which it was hoped might be accomplished by the attendance of ministers at Panama were, the preservation of the tranquillity of the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, the invasion of which, by the united forces of Mexico and Colombia, was among the objects to be matured by the belligerent states at Panama; and the abolition of private war upon the ocean, by a general agreement among the South American nations, as far as any of them were concerned. It was hoped that they would also take into consideration the means of making effectual the assertion of the principle, that the European

nations have no right to colonize further in this country ; and that, with the exception of the existing colonies, the whole of the continent of America belongs to the independent governments established upon it ; and that they would concert measures for the more effectual abolition of the slave trade, and, if possible, prevail upon the South American nations, to consent to religious toleration.

The mission was warmly opposed in congress, on the ground that it would be a departure from the neutral character, that the United States professed to maintain, and contrary to the advice of Washington, which was, in extending the commercial relations with other countries, to have as little political connection with them as possible. After much

Two ministers
sent to Panama.

discussion, the nominations of the president were approved by the senate, and two ministers were appointed to represent the United States at Panama.

1826.

July 4.

Simultaneous
death of the
ex-presidents,
Adams and
Jefferson.

On the 4th of July, 1826, died John Adams and Thomas Jefferson. That these two political fathers, who had contributed more than any other Americans living, to the establishment of independence, should thus depart together, amidst the rejoicings of its fiftieth anniversary, struck to the hearts of the American people an indescribable feeling of awe and astonishment. It was as if Heaven itself, participating in the jubilee of freedom, had removed the two most worthy guests of the festival, to the higher rejoicings of the celestial courts.

For geographical notices, see the geographies of the present day. The following is a list of the military stations in the United States, in 1826.

Fort Sullivan, at Eastport, Maine.

Fort Preble, at Portland, Maine.

Fort Constitution, at Portsmouth, N. H.

Fort Independence, at Boston, Mass.

Fort Adams and Wolcott, at Newport, R. I.

Fort Trumbull, at New London, Ct.

Forts Columbus, Wood, Gibson, and La Fayette, at New-York.

Fort M'Henry, at Baltimore, Md.

Fort at Annapolis, Md.

Fort Washington, on the Potomac, four miles below Alexandria.

Fortress Monroe and Calhoun, near Hampton Roads.

Fort Johnson, at Smithfield, N. C.

Fort Moultrie, at Charleston, S. C.

Fort Jackson, at Savannah, Geo.

Fort Marion, at St. Augustine, Florida.

Fort Barancas, near the entrance of the harbour, and Cantonment Clinch, above the town, Pensacola

Forts Jackson and Philips, near the mouth of the Mississippi river.

Fortified Arsenal, at Baton Rouge.

Cantonment Jessup, at Natchitoches.

Cantonment Towson, at Kiamisha.

Fort Atkinson, at Council Bluffs.

Fort Armstrong, on Rock Island, in the Mississippi river.

Fort Crawford, at the Prairie du Chien.

Fort Luelling, near the Falls of St. Anthony.

Fort Howard, at Green Bay.

Fort Brady, at the Sault de St. Marie.

Fort Mackinaw, near the Straits of Michilimacinack.

Madison Barracks, at Sackett's Harbour.

Fort Niagara, near the mouth of Niagara river.

Fort at West Point.

There are arsenals at Watertown, near Boston ; Gibbonsville, opposite Troy, N. Y. ; Rome, N. Y. ; Philadelphia, Pa. ; Pittsburg, Pa. ; Pikesville, near Baltimore ; Washington City ; Bellona arsenal, near Richmond, Va. ; and at Charleston, S. C.

Armories at Springfield, and at Pittsburg, Pa.

There are naval stations at Portsmouth, N. H. ; Boston ; New-York ; Philadelphia ; Washington ; Norfolk, Va. ; Pensacola.

A military academy was founded at West Point, by the government of the United States, in 1802, during the administration of Mr. Jefferson. This institution, when first organized, consisted only of the commandant, and a few other officers of the corps of engineers, together with fifteen or twenty cadets, who were attached to that corps. Congress, in the first instance, appropriated \$25,000, for erecting buildings, and purchasing apparatus. By an act of congress, in 1812, the plan was much extended, as to the course of education. It also increased the number of cadets to two hundred and fifty, and provided for a professor and assistant professor in natural and experimental philosophy ; a professor and assistant professor in engineering ; a professor and assistant professor of mathematics ; a professor of the French language ; a professor of drawing ; an instructor of tactics ; an instructor in artillery ; a surgeon of the army, to act as professor of chemistry and mineralogy ; and a swords master. By an act of congress in 1818, a chaplain was appointed, who is also professor of rhetoric and moral philosophy. The secretary of war is authorized to appoint, in addition to the above, as many lieutenants from the army, as the service of the academy may require, who are to act as assistant professors. The library contains about seven thousand volumes, principally on scientific subjects. The course of instruction is finished in four years.

Year in which
they died.

*Catalogue of eminent men who died during the period,
extending from 1803 to 1826.*

1803. SAMUEL ADAMS, a distinguished statesman and patriot, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

SAMUEL HOPKINS, D. D., an eminent divine—author of a System of Doctrines, to which is added, a Treatise on the Millenium.

WILLIAM VANS MURRAY, a distinguished statesman.

MATTHEW THORNTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1804. ALEXANDER HAMILTON, a distinguished statesman, and first secretary of the treasury of the United States.

JOHN BLAIR LINN, D. D., a poet, and an eminent divine—author of “The Powers of Genius,” Valerian, &c.

PHILIP SCHUYLER, a major-general in the revolutionary army.

GEORGE WALTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

JOSEPH PRIESTLY, an eminent divine.

1805. ARTHUR BROWN, L. L. D., a distinguished scholar and eminent barrister—author of a “Compend of Civil Law,” “Miscellaneous Sketches,” &c.

WILLIAM MOULTRIE, governor of South Carolina, and a major-general in the American war.

1806. ISAAC BACKUS, a learned divine and historian—author of a “Church History of New-England.”

HORATIO GATES, a major-general in the army of the United States.

HENRY KNOX, L. L. D., a major-general in the army of the United States, and first secretary of the treasury.

ROBERT MORRIS, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

GEORGE WYTHE, chancellor of Virginia, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1807. ABRAHAM BALDWIN, a distinguished statesman.

OLIVER ELLSWORTH, chief justice of the United States, and a distinguished statesman.

EDWARD PREBLE, commodore in the navy of the United States.

SAMUEL WEST, D. D. an eminent divine, metaphysical, theological, and controversial writer—author of “Essays on Liberty and Necessity.”

FISHER AMES, a distinguished statesman and scholar. 1808.

JOHN DICKINSON, a distinguished political writer.

JOHN REDMAN, M. D., first president of the college of physicians in Philadelphia.

WILLIAM SHIPPEN, M. D., F. R. S., a learned physician and anatomist.

JAMES SULLIVAN, a distinguished civilian—author of a “History of the District of Maine,” “History of the Penobscot Indians,” &c.

THOMAS HEYWARD, one of the signers of the declaration of independence. 1809.

MERIWETHER LEWIS, governor of Louisiana.

THOMAS PAINE, a political and deistical writer—author of the “Age of Reason,” “Rights of Man,” &c.

CHARLES BROCKDEN BROWN, a distinguished writer, principally of novels—author of “Wieland,” “Ormond, or the Secret Witness,” &c. 1810.

BENJAMIN LINCOLN, a major-general in the American army.

ROBERT TREAT PAINE, a distinguished poet. 1811.

WILLIAM WILLIAMS, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

JOEL BARLOW, L. L. D., a distinguished poet—author of the “Vision of Columbus,” since entitled the “Columbiad.” 1812.

GEORGE CLINTON, fourth vice president of the United States.

DAVID RAMSAY, a celebrated historian—author of the “Life of Washington,” “American Revolution,” &c.

GEORGE CLYMER, one of the signers of the declaration of independence. 1813.

ROBERT R. LIVINGSTON, one of the signers of the declaration of independence, and a distinguished patriot and statesman.

THEOPHILUS PARSONS, an eminent statesman and lawyer.

ZEBULON MONTGOMERY PIKE, a brigadier-general in the army of the United States. 1813

BENJAMIN RUSH, M. D., a celebrated physician, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

ALEXANDER WILSON, a celebrated naturalist.

WILLIAM HEATH, a major-general in the American army. 1814.

ROBERT TREAT PAINE, a distinguished patriot, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence

ELBRIDGE GERRY, vice president of the United States.

JAMES A. BAYARD, a distinguished statesman.

1815. JOHN CARROLL, D. D., first Archbishop of the Roman Catholic Church in America.

BENJAMIN SMITH BARTON, M. D., a learned physician.

ROBERT FULTON, a celebrated civil engineer, and the first person in the United States who applied steam to the propelling of vessels.

GOVERNEUR MORRIS, a distinguished statesman.

1816. JAMES ALEXANDER DALLAS, secretary of the treasury of the United States.

1817. TIMOTHY DWIGHT, S. T. D., L. L. D., president and professor of divinity of Yale College.

ARTHUR ST. CLAIR, a major-general in the army of the United States.

1818. SAMUEL STANHOPE SMITH, D. D., L. L. D., president of Princeton College.

HUGH WILLIAMSON, M. D. L. L. D., author of the "History of North Carolina," "Change of the climate of the United States," &c.

DANIEL BOONE, the first settler of the state of Kentucky.

1820. STEPHEN DECATUR, commodore in the navy of the United States.

OLIVER HAZARD PERRY, commodore in the navy of the United States.

BENJAMIN WEST, a celebrated historical painter.

WILLIAM ELLERY, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

1821. SAMUEL BARD, M. D., L. L. D., an eminent physician, and president of the college of physicians and surgeons in the University of New-York.

WILLIAM FLOYD, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

WILLIAM PINKNEY, an eminent lawyer and statesman.

1822. JOHN STARK, a brigadier-general in the American army during the revolutionary war.

WILLIAM BARTRAM, F. R. S., an eminent botanist--author of "Travels through the Carolinas, Georgia, and the Floridas."

1823. JOHN ADAMS, L. L. D., eminent as a statesman and a lawyer, and second president of the United States.

1826. THOMAS JEFFERSON, L. L. D., third president of the United States.

APPENDIX.



A.

MANY efforts to civilize the Indians have been made by the government of the United States ; and these humane exertions have been ably seconded by pious and benevolent individuals ; but apparently with little effect. What is known of the history of those tribes who inhabited the central and northern parts of the American Republic, exhibits them as a peculiar people, and shows that there are principles in their mental constitution, averse to civilization.* Although the Indians had for centuries, perhaps for thousands of years, been the sole lords of rich and extensive domains, affording many eligible and central situations, yet from authentic histories, we do not learn that they had any cities. Compared with other nations, the Indian scarce seems a gregarious animal. Other barbarians have, by degrees, seen the advantages of union ; and hence have bartered their independence for security. Not so with the Indian. He is master of his own conduct ; the avenger of his own wrongs. Even in war, he follows his leader only by his own choice. If it should be said that the comparative solitude in which he lives, is rather the necessary effect of the manner in which he procures his subsistence, than of his own voluntary selection—that his living in this state marks no peculiarity of his taste, but only his degree in the scale of civilization, other nations having gone through the same barbarous state before arriving at refinement—why then, it may be asked, when the pleasures and comforts of civilization are introduced, does he not manifest the same eagerness to possess himself of them, that other barbarians have hitherto manifested on like occasions ? The savage tribes in the north of Europe were, at the period when history first presents them to our notice, in the same wandering unsettled state, in which the Indian tribes have been subsequently found ; but as soon as these blood-hounds of war scented, from the south the distant cities and fields of civilization, they rushed towards them, drove off their possessors, and gladly abandoning their own inhospitable mountains, enjoyed the pleasures and learned the arts of civilized men. So far from this, the Indians, when civilization is brought to their door, flee from it. Their tribes, it is true, made war upon our forefathers ; but it was to exterminate them, and to regain a soil which they regarded as belonging to them, and over which they wished again to roam uncontrolled ; but in no instance did the Indian seek, like the European barbarian, to drive the white man from his dwelling, that he might have a more commodious one to inhabit himself. And now that these tribes have so long lived with a civilized people, they do not incline to mingle with them. The contrast between the character of the Indian and the negro, in this respect, shows still more plainly, that the former acts from his propensities rather than his situation. The negro, brought from the wilds of Africa, immediately acquires a taste for luxury, and

* These remarks are not intended to include the Cherokees.

gladly serves in the dwellings of the rich ; but the Indian can rarely be thus tempted to forego his independence.

The Indians themselves appear to be impressed with the belief that they are, by nature, different men from the whites. It was related by a lady who had long lived near them, that a chief in her neighbourhood, had sent his son, for an education, to Dartmouth College. On his return to his paternal fields, he immediately re-assumed the dress and ferocious manners of the Indians. On her noticing this circumstance to the father, "Hoh!" said the old Indian, "if you catch a young wolf, and shut him up in a pen, do you think, when you let him out, he will not catch lambs."

That man is the same in all ages and in all climates, is doubtless a general truth, but it cannot be received without its limitations. When considering the bodily structure of different races, that anatomist would err, who should practise his profession, on the presumption that there were no differences ;—and let us but open our eyes to the lights of history, and we shall be convinced that the politician would equally commit an error, who should proceed on the supposition that there are no original differences of mental constitution.

There is something melancholy in contemplating the fate of this people, when we look back to the time when they were lords of the soil of America, crowded, as they have been, further and further to the west: nor does their future prospect, unless some unforeseen change takes place, seem much more cheering. "By and by," says Mr. Moulton, "they will have passed the Rocky Mountains, and in a few centuries scarcely a remnant will be seen, unless along the beach of the Pacific, the utmost boundary to which they can flee ; where, as they gaze upon the illimitable expanse, and turn back to the country of their ancestors, they will mingle with the resounding surge the death song of departed nations."

We should hope that this mournful image was rather the production of poetic fancy, than historic truth ; nor have the considerations mentioned been brought forward to deter benevolent exertions in their favour ; but in hopes that it may tend to make those exertions more effectual. The statesman, like the mechanician, must know in what element he is to operate, and what resistance he is to overcome. Taking for granted the absolute identity of their nature with ours, we have proceeded on the supposition that the perfection of their society and institutions must be the same as our own, and to this point have our exertions been directed. Allow that there is a difference in their mental, as well as physical formation—allow that it is as impossible for us to suppress their native independence, as it would be to sink their high cheek bones, or bend their erect and stately figures ; that we can no more give them the tenderness of feeling, which makes us so dependent on each other, than we could impart to them the fair and roseate tints of our skin, or the softness of our hair ; allow this, and it follows that the perfection of their nature, and consequently of their institutions, is something different from the perfection of ours. What is then the most perfect state of society in which the Indian can live ? What advances has he made towards attaining it ? What can we do to aid him in securing it ? These are questions for the American statesman and philanthropist.

To the northwest lies one full quarter of North America, yet uninhabited except by savage tribes. In that region is room for the Indians to form themselves into a mighty nation. If their leaders could once receive a spirit of improvement, they could do what cannot be done by the whites ; whom the Indians hate as usurpers of a soil which of right belongs to them, and despise as, on the whole, inferior to themselves. Such a spirit of improvement might lead them to profit by their

past errors, to select such among our arts and sciences as are best fitted to their peculiar character, and finally to form themselves into a united people; never, it is true, possessing what we consider the refinements of society, but perhaps exhibiting traits of greatness of which we have little idea.



B.

SKETCH OF CHARTER GRANTED BY QUEEN ELIZABETH TO SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

“THIS charter, granted by Elizabeth, authorizes Gilbert to discover and take possession of all remote and barbarous lands, unoccupied by any Christian people. It invests in him, his heirs, and assigns for ever, the full right of property in the soil of those countries, whereof he should take possession. She permits such of her subjects as were willing to follow Gilbert in his voyage, to go and settle in the countries which he shall plant. She empowers him, his heirs, and assigns, to dispose of whatever portions of lands he shall judge meet, to persons settled there, in fee simple, according to the laws of England. She ordains that all the lands granted to Gilbert, shall hold of the crown of England by homage, on payment of the fifth part of the gold or silver ore found there. She confers upon him, his heirs, and assigns, the complete jurisdiction and royalties, as well marine as others, within the said lands, and seas thereunto adjoining: and as their common interest and safety would render good government necessary in their new settlements, she gave Gilbert, his heirs, and assigns, full power to convict, punish, pardon, govern, and rule, by their good discretion and policy, as well in capital or criminal, as civil cases, both marine and others, all persons, who shall, from time to time, settle within the said countries, according to such statutes, laws, and ordinances, as shall be by him, his heirs, and assigns, devised and established for their better government. She declared that all who settled there should have and enjoy all the privileges of free denizens and natives; any law, custom, or usage to the contrary, notwithstanding. And finally, she prohibited all persons from attempting to settle within two hundred leagues of any place which Sir Humphrey Gilbert, or his associates shall have occupied, during the space of six years.”



C.

SKETCH OF CHARTER GRANTED BY JAMES I. TO LONDON AND PLYMOUTH COMPANIES.

“As the object for which they associated was new, the plan established for their administration was uncommon. Instead of the power usually granted to corporations, of framing laws and electing officers for the conduct of their own operations, the supreme government of the colonies to be settled, was vested in a council resident in England, to be named by the king, according to such laws and ordinances as should be given under his signature; and the subordinate jurisdiction

was committed to a council resident in America; which was likewise to be nominated by the king, and to act conformably to his instructions. To this was added encouragement to persons to settle in the intended colonies, similar to those granted to Gilbert and Raleigh, securing to the emigrants and their descendants, all the rights of denizens, in the same manner as if they remained or had been born in England; and granting them the privilege of holding their lands in America, by the freest and least burdensome tenure. Other grants, made by James, were more favourable than those granted by Elizabeth.

He permitted whatever was necessary for the sustenance of the commerce of the new colonies to be exported from England, during the space of seven years, without paying any duty; and as a further incitement to industry, he granted them liberty of trade with other nations, and appropriated the duty to be levied on foreign commodities for twenty-one years, as a fund for the benefit of the colony. In this singular charter, some articles were as unfavourable to the rights of the colonists, as others were to the interests of the parent state. By placing the legislative and executive powers in a council nominated by the crown, and guided by its instructions, every person settling in America seems to be bereaved of the noblest privilege of a freeman; by the unlimited permission of trade with foreigners, the parent state is deprived of that exclusive commerce which has been deemed the chief advantage resulting from the establishment of colonies."

D.

FIRST CIVIL COMPACT OF THE BRITISH COLONIES OF AMERICA, DRAWN UP AND
SIGNED BY THE PILGRIMS, ON BOARD THE MAYFLOWER, Nov. 11th, 1620.

"In the name of God, Amen; we whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign lord, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, king, Defender of the Faith,—

"Having undertaken, for the glory of God, and the advancement of the Christian faith, and honour of the king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony of Virginia; do by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic, for our better ordering and preservation, and furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof, to enact, constitute, and frame such just laws, ordinances, constitutions, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony; unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names, at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the reign of our sovereign lord, King James of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth, Anno Domini, 1620.—John Carver, William Bradford, Edward Winslow, William Brewster, Isaac Allerton, Miles Standish, John Alden, Samuel Fuller, James Clinton, John Crackston, John Billington, Moses Fletcher, John Goodman, Degory Priest, Thomas Williams, Gilbert Winslow, Christopher Martin, William Mullins, William White, Richard Warren, John Howland, Stephen Hopkins, Edward Tilly, John Tilly, Francis Cook, Thomas Rogers, Thomas Tinker, Edward Fuller, Edmund Margeson, Peter Brown, Richard Briterige, George Soule, Richard Clarke, Richard Gardiner, John Allerton, Thomas English, Edward Dotey, Edward Leister, John Ridgdale, John Turner, Francis Eaton."

E.

CONDITIONS OF THE LEAGUE ENTERED INTO BETWEEN THE COLONIES OF
PLYMOUTH, MASSACHUSETTS, NEW HAVEN, AND CONNECTICUT.

“ Each colony was to retain separate jurisdiction ; the charge of all wars to be borne in proportion to the male inhabitants between sixteen and sixty years of age, in each colony. Upon notice of an invasion from three magistrates of any colony, the others were immediately to send troops in aid ;—Massachusetts one hundred, and each of the other colonies, forty-five ; and if a greater force should be necessary, the commissioners were to meet, and determine the numbers. Two commissioners from each colony, being church members, were to meet annually, on the first Monday of September ; the first meeting to be held in Boston ; then at Hartford, New Haven, and Plymouth, in succession. All matters wherein six should agree, to be binding upon the whole ; and if there should be a majority, but under six, the matter in question to be referred to the general court of each colony, and not to be obligatory, unless the whole should agree. The commissioners were empowered to establish laws or rules of a civil nature, and of general concern, for the conduct of the inhabitants towards the Indians and the fugitives from one colony to another.

“ No colony to engage in a war, except upon a sudden emergency ; and in that case, to be avoided, without the consent of the whole. When a meeting was summoned on any extraordinary occasion, and no more than four commissioners should attend, they were empowered to determine on war, when the case admitted of no delay, and to send for the quota of men out of each jurisdiction.

“ If any colony should break an article of the league, or injure another colony, the matter to be considered by the other colonies.”—Hoyt.

F.

SKETCH OF MR. LOCKE'S CONSTITUTION.

“ Dissatisfied with all their own systems, the proprietors at length applied to the celebrated Mr. Locke, for the plan of a constitution adapted to their infant colony. They supposed that this profound and acute reasoner on politics as well as other subjects, must necessarily be deeply skilled in the science of governing men. He framed for them a body of fundamental laws, which were afterwards approved and adopted in July. By them a palatine was to be chosen for life, among the proprietors, who was empowered to act as president of the palatine court, composed of all those who were entrusted with the execution of the powers of the charter. A body of hereditary nobility was created, to be denominated landgraves and caciques ; the former to be invested with four baronies, consisting each of four thousand acres, and the latter to have two, containing each two thousand acres of land. These estates were to descend, with the dignities for ever. The provincial legislature, denominated a parliament, was to consist of the proprietors ; and in case of the absence of any one of them, his place was supplied by his deputy, chosen

by himself; of the nobility, and the representatives of the freeholders of every district. These discordant characters were to assemble in one apartment, and vote as a single body. This parliament could initiate nothing. The bills to be laid before it were first to be prepared and assented to in the grand council, composed of the governor, of the nobility, and the deputies of the proprietors, who were invested also with the executive power. At the end of every century, the laws were to become void, without the formality of a repeal. Various judicatories were erected, and an infinite variety of minute and perplexing regulations were made. This constitution, which was declared to be perpetual, soon furnished an additional evidence to the many afforded by the history of the human race, of the great but neglected truth, that experience is the only safe school in which the science of government is to be acquired, and that the theories of the closet must have the stamp of practice, before they can be received with implicit confidence."

—MARSHALL.

G.

SKETCH OF NAVIGATION ACTS.

"In the memorable statute of 1651, it was ordained that no commodities should be imported into any foreign settlement, unless in vessels built either in England or its plantations, and manned with sailors, of whom three-fourths were subjects of Great Britain; that none but Englishmen born or naturalized, should act as merchants or factors in any of the colonies; that no ginger, tobacco, sugar, cotton, wool, indigo, or other articles enumerated in the bill, should be imported into the colonies from any country but England; and in 1663, that no European commodity should be imported into the colonies, that had not been shipped in England, or in vessels built and manned as has been stated above. The act of navigation, however, allowed the settlers of America to export the enumerated commodities from one plantation to another, without paying any duty; but, in the year 1672, they were further subjected to a tax equivalent to what was paid by the consumers of the same commodity in England."—ENCYCLOPEDIA.

H.

SAYBROOK PLATFORM.

"By the Saybrook platform, the ministers, elders, and messengers of all the churches in a county, or other district, constitute a *consociation*. The ministers of the churches in a county, or other district, form an *association*, which is empowered to examine and recommend candidates. These councils are consulted, in regard to religious concerns, and assist the churches in ordaining and dismissing their ministers; but their powers are mostly advisory. They however contribute by their influence, to preserve peace and harmony among the churches, restrain controversies, and reconcile difficulties. A general association, consisting of delegates from the several associations in the state, hold an annual meeting in each of the counties, by rotation."—WEBSTER.

I.

AURORA BOREALIS.

“THAT so novel and singular an appearance should have produced consternation, is not extraordinary. When first seen in England, the consternation was equally great. One who saw it gives the following description:—“The brightness, bloodiness, and firiness of the colours, together with the swiftness of the motions, increased, insomuch that we could hardly trace them with our eyes, till at length almost the whole heavens appeared as if they were set on flame; which wrought and glimmered with flashes in a most dreadful and indiscrible manner. It seemed to threaten us with an immediate descent and deluge of fire. The streets were filled with dreadful outcries and lamentations, and frightened a great many people into their houses. And we began to think whether the Son of God was next to make his terrible and glorious appearance, or the conflagration of the world was now begun: for the elements seemed as if they were melting with fervent heat, and the ethereal vault to be burning over us, like the fiery agitations of the blaze of a furnace, or at the top of a fiery oven. And the glimmering light looked as if it proceeded from a more glorious body behind, and about to make its sudden appearance to our eyes.’

“The Aurora Borealis was first noticed in Europe in 1560; and from that time it was occasionally seen until 1623; and from that time for more than eighty years, we have no account of a similar phenomenon being observed. In 1716, Dr. Halley observed and described a very brilliant one, which spread itself over the north of Europe. Since that time, it has been common in our latitudes, and from its frequency, has ceased to excite alarm.”—Hoyt.

J.

PLAN OF UNION PROPOSED IN THE CONVENTION AT ALBANY, 1754.

“APPLICATION was to be made for an act of parliament, to establish in the colonies a general government, to be administered by a president general, appointed by the crown, and by a grand council, consisting of members chosen by the several colonial assemblies; their numbers to be in direct proportion to the sums paid by each colony into the treasury; with this restriction, that no colony should have more than seven, nor less than two representatives. The whole of the executive authority was committed to the president general. The power of legislation was lodged jointly in the grand council and the president general; his consent being made necessary to the passing of a bill into a law. The powers vested in the president and council, were, to declare war or peace; to conclude treaties with the Indian nations; to regulate trade with them, either in the name of the crown, or of the Union; to settle new colonies, and to make laws for governing them until they should be erected into separate governments; and to raise troops, build forts, fit out armed vessels, and use other means for the general defence. To effect these purposes, a power was given to make laws laying such duties, imposts, or taxes, as should be found necessary, and as would be least burdensome to the people. All laws were to be sent to England for the approbation of the king; and unless

disapproved within three years, they were to remain in force. All officers in the land or sea service were to be nominated by the president general, and approved by the general council; civil officers were to be nominated by the council, and approved by the president.”—HOLMES.

K.

Charles Townshend; a brilliant orator, on the side of the ministry, at the conclusion of an animated speech, demanded:—“And these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expense which we lie under?”

Col. Barre, immediately rising, indignantly and eloquently exclaimed:—“Children planted by your care! No. Your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to all the hardships to which human nature is liable; and among others, to the cruelties of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me to say, the most terrible, that ever inhabited any part of God’s earth. And yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all these hardships with pleasure, when they compared them with those they suffered in their own country, from men who should have been their friends.

“They nourished by your indulgence! No. They grew by your neglect. When you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them, who were deputies of some deputy sent to spy out their liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them; whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them; men promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of justice in their own.

“They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence. They have exerted their valour, amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country which, while its frontier was drenched in blood, has yielded all its little savings to your emolument. Believe me, and remember, I this day told you so, the same spirit which actuated that people at first, still continues with them; but prudence forbids me to explain myself further.

“God knows I do not at this time speak from party heat. However superior to me in general knowledge and experience, any one here may be, I claim to know more of America, having been conversant in that country. The people there are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has; but a people jealous of their liberties, and will vindicate them if they should be violated. But the subject is delicate; I will say no more.”

L.

MEMBERS OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

The members of this congress were generally elected by the authority of the state legislatures; but, in some instances, a different system had been pursued. In New Jersey and Maryland, the elections were made by a committee chosen in the several counties for that particular purpose; and, in New-York, where the royal party was very strong, and where it is probable no legislative act, authorizing an election of members to represent that colony in congress, could have been obtained, the people themselves assembled in those places where the spirit of opposition to the claims of parliament prevailed, and elected deputies, who were readily received into congress. The powers, too, with which the representatives of the several colonies were invested, were not only variously expressed, but of various extent. The names of the delegates were as follows, viz. *New Hampshire*, John Sullivan, Nathaniel Fulsom. *Massachusetts Bay*, James Bowdoin, Thomas Cushing, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine. *Rhode Island and Providence Plantations*, Stephen Hopkins, Samuel Ward. *Connecticut*, Eliphalet Dyer, Roger Sherman, Silas Deane. *From the city and county of New-York, and other counties in the province of New-York*, James Duane, Henry Wisner, John Jay, Philip Livingston, Isaac Low, John Alsop. *From the county of Suffolk, in the province of New-York*, William Floyd. *New Jersey*, James Kinsey, William Livingston, John Dehart, Stephen Crane, Richard Smith. *Pennsylvania*, Joseph Galloway, Charles Humphreys, Samuel Rhoads, George Ross, John Morton, Thomas Mifflin, Edward Biddle, John Dickinson. *Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex, on Delaware*, Cæsar Rodney, Thomas M'Kean, George Read. *Maryland*, Robert Goldsborough, Thomas Johnson, William Paea, Samuel Chase, Matthew Tilgham. *Virginia*, Peyton Randolph, Richard Henry Lee, George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Bland, Benjamin Harrison, Edmund Pendleton. *North Carolina*, William Hooper, Joseph Hughes, Richard Caswell. *South Carolina*, Henry Middleton, John Rutledge, Thomas Lynch, Christopher Gadsden, Edward Rutledge.

M.

BILL OF RIGHTS.

“Whereas, since the close of the last war, the British parliament, claiming a power, of right, to bind the people of America by statutes, in all cases whatsoever, hath, in some acts, expressly imposed taxes on them; and in others, under various pretences, but, in fact, for the purpose of raising a revenue, hath imposed rates and duties payable in these colonies, established a board of commissioners with unconstitutional powers, and extended the jurisdiction of courts of admiralty, not only for collecting the said duties, but for the trial of causes merely arising within the body of a county.

“And whereas, in consequence of other statutes, judges, who before held only estates at will in their offices, have been made dependent on the crown alone for

their salaries, and standing armies kept in times of peace : and whereas it has lately been resolved in parliament, that by force of a statute made in the thirty-fifth year of the reign of King Henry VII. colonists may be transported to England, and tried there, upon accusations for treasons, and misprisons and concealment of treasons committed in the colonies ; and by a late statute, such trials have been directed in cases therein mentioned.

And whereas in the last session of parliament three statutes were made ; one entitled, “ An act to discontinue in such manner and for such time as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading or shipping of goods, wares, and merchandise, at the town and within the harbour of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in North America ;” another, entitled, “ An Act for the better regulating the government of the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England ;” and another act, entitled, “ An Act for the impartial administration of justice, in the cases of persons questioned for any act done by them in the execution of the law, or for the suppression of riots and tumults in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England :” and another statute was then made for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec, &c. All which statutes are impolitic, unjust, and cruel, as well as unconstitutional, and most dangerous and destructive of American rights.

And whereas assemblies have been frequently dissolved, contrary to the rights of the people, when they attempted to deliberate on grievances ; and their dutiful, humble, loyal, and reasonable petitions to the crown for redress, have been repeatedly treated with contempt, by his majesty’s ministers of state ; the good people of the several colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex on Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina—justly alarmed at the arbitrary proceedings of parliament and administrations, have severally elected, constituted, and appointed deputies to meet and sit in general congress, in the city of Philadelphia, in order to obtain such establishment as that their religion, laws, and liberties may not be subverted : whereupon, the deputies so appointed being now assembled in a full and free representation of these colonies, taking into their most serious consideration the best means of attaining the ends aforesaid, do, in the first place, as Englishmen, their ancestors, in like cases, have usually done for asserting and vindicating their rights and liberties, *declare*, that the inhabitants of the English colonies in North America, by the immutable laws of nature, the principles of the English constitution, and the several charters or compacts, have the following rights :—

Resolved unanimously—1st, That they are entitled to life, liberty, and property ; and they have never ceded to any sovereign, whatsoever, a right to dispose of either without their consent.

Resolved—2d, That our ancestors, who first settled these colonies, were, at the time of their emigration from the mother country, entitled to all the rights, liberties, and immunities of free and natural born subjects within the realm of England.

Resolved—3d, That by such emigration, they by no means forfeited, surrendered, or lost any of those rights, but that they were, and their descendants now are entitled to the exercise and enjoyment of all such of them as their local and other circumstances enabled them to exercise and enjoy.

Resolved 4th, That the foundation of English liberty, and of all free government, is a right in the people to participate in their legislative councils ; and as the English colonists are not represented, and from their local and other circumstances, cannot properly be represented in the British parliament, they are entitled to a free

and exclusive power of legislation in their several provincial legislatures, where their right of representation can alone be preserved in all cases of taxation and internal polity, subject only to the negative of their sovereign in such manner as has been heretofore used and accustomed; but from the necessity of the case, and a regard to the mutual interests of both countries, we cheerfully consent to the operation of such acts of the British parliament as are *bona fide* restrained to the regulation of our external commerce, for the purpose of securing the commercial advantages of the whole empire to the mother country, and the commercial benefits of its respective members; excluding every idea of taxation, internal or external, for raising a revenue on the subjects of America, without their consent.

Resolved—5th, That the respective colonies are entitled to the common law of England, and more especially to the great and inestimable privilege of being tried by the peers of the vicinage, according to the course of that law.

Resolved—6th, That they are entitled to the benefit of such of the English statutes, as existed at the time of their colonization; and which they have, by experience, respectively found to be applicable to their several local and other circumstances.

Resolved—7th, That these, his majesty's colonies, are likewise entitled to all the privileges and immunities, granted and confirmed to them by royal charters, or secured by their several codes of provincial laws.

Resolved—8th, That they have a right peaceably to assemble, consider of their grievances, and petition the king; and that all prosecutions, prohibitory proclamations, and commitments for the same, are illegal.

Resolved—9th, That the keeping a standing army in these colonies in times of peace, without the consent of the legislature of that colony in which such army is kept, is against law.

Resolved—10th, It is indispensably necessary to good government, and rendered essential by the English constitution, that the constituent branches of the legislature be independent of each other; that, therefore, the exercise of legislative power in several colonies, by a council appointed during pleasure by the crown, is unconstitutional, dangerous, and destructive to the freedom of American legislation.

All and each of which the aforesaid deputies in behalf of themselves and their constituents, do claim, demand, and insist on, as their indubitable rights and liberties, which cannot be legally taken from them, altered or abridged by any power whatever, without their own consent, by their representatives in their several provincial legislatures. In the course of our inquiry, we find many infringements and violations of the foregoing rights, which, from an ardent desire that harmony and mutual intercourse of affection and interest may be restored, we pass over for the present, and proceed to state such acts and measures as have been adopted, since the last war, which demonstrate a system formed to enslave America.

THE
DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Signed on the 4th of July, 1776, by a Congress of Delegates, assembled at Philadelphia, from the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.



WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind, requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed, by their Creator, with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government.—The history of the present king of Great Britain, is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained ; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws, for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies, at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses, repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large, for their exercise ; the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the danger of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states ; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws, for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction, foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation.

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states :

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our consent :

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury :

For transporting us, beyond the seas, to be tried for pretended offences :

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument, for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the powers of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already began, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time, of attempts, made by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connexions and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war—in peace, friends.

WE, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, Do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states.—That they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.”

The members of the congress of 1776, who signed this declaration, were as follows:

New Hampshire.—John Hancock, Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay.—Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island.—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

Connecticut.—Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

New-York.—William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

New Jersey.—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abram Clark.

Pennsylvania.—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

Delaware.—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M. Kean.

Maryland.—Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Virginia.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, jun. Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.—William Hooper, Joseph Hughes, John Penn.

South Carolina.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, jun., Thomas Lynch, jun., Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

The following articles were drawn up by a committee of gentlemen, who were appointed by congress for this purpose, June 12th, 1776, and finally adopted Nov. 15th, 1777.

The committee were Messrs. Bartlett, S. Adams, Hopkins, Sherman, R. R. Livingston, Dickinson, M'Kean, Stone, Nelson, Hewes, E. Rutledge, and Gwinnet.

Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union, between the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Article 1. The stile of this confederacy shall be "The United States of America."

Article 2. Each state retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in congress assembled.

Article 3. The said states hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare; binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

Article 4. The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different states in this union, the free inhabitants of each of these states, (paupers, vagabonds, and fugitives from justice excepted,) shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several states; and the people of each state shall have free ingress and regress to and from any other state, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce, subject to the same duties, impositions, and restrictions as the inhabitants thereof respectively, provided, that such restriction shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any state to any other state, of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided also that no imposition, duties or restriction, shall be laid by any state on the property of the United States or either of them.

If any person guilty of, or charged with treason, felony, or other high misdemeanor in any state, shall flee from justice, and be found in any of the United States, he shall, upon demand of the governor or executive power of the state from

which he fled, be delivered up, and removed to the state having jurisdiction of his offence.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each of these states to the records, acts, and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other state.

Article 5. For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state shall direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November, in every year, with a power reserved to each state to recal its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead, for the remainder of the year.

No state shall be represented in congress by less than two, nor by more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind.

Each state shall maintain its own delegates in any meeting of the states, and while they act as members of the committee of the states.

In determining questions in the United States in congress assembled, each state shall have one vote.

Freedom of speech and debate in congress, shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of congress; and the members of congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments, during the time of their going to and from, and attendance on congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Article 6. No state, without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from, or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance, or treaty with any king, prince, or state; nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state; nor shall the United States, in congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

No two or more states shall enter into any treaty, confederation, or alliance whatever between them, without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, specifying accurately the purposes for which the same is to be entered into, and how long it shall continue.

No state shall lay any imposts or duties, which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties entered into by the United States in congress assembled with any king, prince, or state, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by congress to the courts of France and Spain.

No vessels of war shall be kept up in time of peace by any state, except such number only, as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in congress assembled, for the defence of such state, or its trade; nor shall any body of forces be kept up by any state, in time of peace, except such number only, as in the judgment of the United States, in congress assembled, shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such state; but every state shall always keep up a well regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred; and shall provide and have constantly ready for use, in public stores, a due number of field pieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition, and camp equipage.

No state shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in congress assembled, unless such state be actually invaded by enemies, or shall have

certain advice of a resolution being formed, by some nation of Indians, to invade such a state, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of a delay, till the United States in congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any state grant commissions to any ships or vessels of war; nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in congress assembled; and then only against the kingdom or state, and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in congress assembled, unless such state be infested by pirates; in which case, vessels of war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

Article 7. When land forces are raised by any state, for the common defence, all officers of, or under the rank of colonel, shall be appointed by the legislature of each state respectively, by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such state shall direct; and all vacancies shall be filled up by the state which first made the appointment.

Article 8. All charges of war, and all other expenses, that shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several states, in proportion to the value of all land within each state, granted to, or surveyed for any person, as such land, and the buildings and improvements thereon, shall be estimated, according to such mode as the United States in congress assembled, shall from time to time direct and appoint.

The taxes for paying that proportion, shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the several states, within the time agreed upon by the United States in congress assembled.

Article 9. The United States in congress assembled, shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth article—of sending and receiving ambassadors—entering into treaties and alliances, provided, that no treaty of commerce shall be made, whereby the legislative power of the respective states shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatsoever—of establishing rules for deciding in all cases, what captures on land or water, shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated—of granting letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace—appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of captures, provided that no member of congress shall be appointed judge of any of the said courts.

The United States, in congress assembled, shall also be the last resort on appeal, in all disputes and differences, now subsisting, or that hereafter may arise between two or more states, concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following; whenever the legislative, or executive authority, or lawful agent of any state, in controversy with another, shall present a petition to congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given, by order of congress, to the legislative, or executive authority of the other state in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance of the parties, by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint, by joint consent, commissioners, or judges, to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question; but if they

cannot agree, congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen ; and from that number not less than seven, nor more than nine names, as congress shall direct, shall, in the presence of congress, be drawn out by lot; and the persons, whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners, or judges, to hear and finally determine the controversy ; so always as a major part of the judges, who shall hear the cause, shall agree in the determination : and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons, which congress shall judge sufficient, or, being present, shall refuse to strike, the congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each state, and the secretary of congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing ; and the judgment and sentence of the court to be appointed, in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive ; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence, or judgment, which shall, in like manner, be final and decisive, the judgment, or sentence, or other proceedings, being, in either case, transmitted to congress, and lodged among the acts of congress, for the security of the parties concerned : provided, that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the state, where the cause shall be tried, “ well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favour, affection, or hope of reward ;” provided also that no state shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

All controversies concerning the private right of soil, claimed under different grants of two or more states, whose jurisdictions, as they may respect such lands and the states which passed such grants are adjusted, the said grants, or either of them being, at the same time, claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement of jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the congress of the United States, be finally determined, as near as may be, in the same manner, as is before prescribed, for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different states.

The United States, in congress assembled, shall also have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective states : fixing the standard of weights and measures throughout the United States ; regulating the trade, and managing all affairs with the Indians, not members of any of the states ; provided that the legislative right of any state within its own limits be not infringed, or violated ; establishing and regulating post offices, from one state to another, throughout the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same, as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office ; appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States, excepting regimental officers ; appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever in the service of the United States ; making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

The United States, in congress assembled, shall have authority to appoint a committee to sit in the recess of congress, to be denominated “ a committee of the states,” and to consist of one delegate from each state, and to appoint such other committees and other civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States, under their direction ; to appoint one of their number to preside, provided that no person be allowed to serve in the office of president

more than one year in any term of three years ; to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses ; to borrow money, or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half year, to the respective states, an account of the sums of money, so borrowed, or emitted : to build and equip a navy ; to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each state for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in such state ; which requisition shall be binding, and thereupon the legislature of each state shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, and clothe, arm, and equip them in a soldier-like manner, at the expense of the United States ; and the officers and men, so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States, in congress assembled : but if the United States, in congress assembled, shall, on consideration of circumstances, judge proper that any state should not raise men, or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other state should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed, and equipped in the same manner as the quota of such state, unless the legislature of such state shall judge that such extra number cannot be safely spared out of the same ; in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm, and equip as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared. And the officers and men, so clothed, armed, and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States, in congress assembled.

The United States, in congress assembled, shall never engage in a war, nor grant letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into any treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States, or any of them ; nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels of war to be built, or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be raised ; nor appoint a commander-in-chief of the army, or navy, unless nine states assent to the same ; nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning, from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States, in congress assembled.

The congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months, and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof, relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations, as in their judgment required secrecy ; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each state on any question, shall be entered on the journal, when it is desired by any delegate ; and the delegates of a state, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the legislatures of the several states.

Article 10. The committee of the states, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of congress, such of the powers of congress, as the United States, in congress assembled, by the consent of nine states, shall, from time to time, think expedient to vest them with, provided that no power be delegated to the said committee, for the exercise of which, by the articles of confederation, the voice of nine states, in the congress of the United States assembled, is requisite.

Article 11. Canada acceding to this confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into and entitled to all the advantages of

this union : but no other colony shall be admitted into the same, unless such admission be agreed to by nine states.

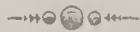
Article 12. All bills of credit emitted, monies borrowed, and debts contracted by or under the authority of congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for payment and satisfaction whereof the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

Article 13. Every state shall abide by the determinations of the United States, in congress assembled, on all questions which, by this confederation, are submitted to them. And the articles of this confederation shall be inviolably observed by every state, and the union shall be perpetual ; nor shall any alteration, at any time hereafter, be made in any of them ; unless such alteration be agreed to in a congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every state.

These articles shall be proposed to the legislatures of all the United States, to be considered, and if approved of by them, they are advised to authorise their delegates to ratify the same in the congress of the United States ; which being done, the same shall become conclusive.

THE CONSTITUTION
OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Framed during the year 1787, by a convention of delegates, who met at Philadelphia, from the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia.



WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION I.

ALL legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

SECTION II.

I. The house of representatives shall be composed of members, chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

II. No person shall be a representative, who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

III. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to servitude for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years, after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative: and, until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one,

Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

IV. When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

V. The house of representatives shall choose their speaker, and other officers ; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.

I. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years : and each senator shall have one vote.

II. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year ; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments, until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

III. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

IV. The vice president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

V. The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

VI. The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath, or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside : and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

VII. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit under the United States ; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.

I. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof ; but the congress may, at any time by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

II. The congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall, by law, appoint a different day.

SECTION V.

I. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

II. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

III. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journals.

IV. Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.

I. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

II. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person, holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.

I. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

II. Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to re-consider it. If, after such re-consideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be re-considered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days, (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

III. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him; or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.

The congress shall have power—

I. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

II. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

III. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes.

IV. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

V. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

VI. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

VII. To establish post offices and post roads.

VIII. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

IX. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court.

X. To define and punish piracies and felonies, committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

XI. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land, or water.

XII. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

XIII. To provide and maintain a navy.

XVI. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

XV. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

XVI. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by congress.

XVII. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock yards, and other needful buildings:—and

XVIII. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department, or office thereof.

SECTION IX.

I. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress, prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

II. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

III. No bill of attainder, or ex post facto law, shall be passed.

IV. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census, or enumeration, herein before directed to be taken.

V. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels, bound to or from one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

VI. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

VII. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X.

I. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

II. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports and exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States, and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION I.

I. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

II. Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress; but no senator or repre-

sentative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

III. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the house of representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for president: and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list, the said house shall, in like manner, choose the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the president, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors, shall be the vice president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the senate shall choose from them by ballot, the vice president.

IV. The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes: which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

V. No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president, neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

VI. In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice president, and the congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

VII. The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

VIII. Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath, or affirmation:

“ I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION II.

I. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal

officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

II. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

III. The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.

He shall, from time to time, give to the congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.

The president, vice president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanours.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION I.

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.

I. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

II. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the congress shall make.

III. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury ; and such trials shall be held in the state where the said crime shall have been committed ; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place, or places as the congress may, by law, have directed.

SECTION III.

I. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

II. The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION I.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.

I. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

II. A person, charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

III. No person, held to service or labour in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law, or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

SECTION III.

I. New states may be admitted by the congress into this Union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state ; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the congress.

II. The congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory, or other property, belonging to the United States ; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SECTION IV.

The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union, a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion ; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress : Provided, that no amendment, which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall, in any manner, affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article ; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrages in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

I. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

II. This Constitution and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof ; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land ; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

III. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath, or affirmation, to support this Constitution ; and no religious test shall ever be required, as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution, between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

The Constitution, although formed in 1787, was not adopted until 1788, and did not commence its operations until 1789. The number of delegates chosen to this convention was sixty-five, of whom ten did not attend, and sixteen refused to sign the Constitution. The following thirty-nine signed the Constitution :—

New Hampshire.—John Langdon, Nicholas Gehman.

Massachusetts.—Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King.

Connecticut.—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman.

New-York.—Alexander Hamilton.

New Jersey.—William Livingston, David Brearley, William Patterson, Jonathan Dayton.

Pennsylvania.—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitzsimons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris.

Delaware.—George Read, Gunning Bedford, jun., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom.

Maryland.—James M'Henry, Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, Daniel Carroll.

Virginia.—John Blair, James Madison, jun.

North Carolina.—William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson.

South Carolina.—John Rutledge, Charles C. Pinkney, Charles Pinkney, Pierce Butler.

Georgia.—William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President*.

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*.

AMENDMENTS.

The following articles in addition to, and amendment of the Constitution of the United States, having been ratified by the legislatures of nine states, are equally obligatory with the Constitution itself.

ARTICLE I.

After the first enumeration required by the first article of the Constitution, there shall be one representative for every thirty thousand, until the number shall amount to one hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than one hundred representatives, nor less than one representative for every forty thousand persons, until the number of representatives shall amount to two hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons.

ARTICLE II.

No law, varying the compensation for the services of the senators and representatives, shall take effect, until an election of representatives shall have intervened.

ARTICLE III.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the rights of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE IV.

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE V.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE VI.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated ; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath, or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE VII.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war or public danger ; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb ; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law ; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VIII.

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation ; to be confronted with the witnesses against him ; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE IX.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE X.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE XI.

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE XII.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XIII.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XIV.

The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot, for president and vice president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves ; they shall name, in their ballots, the person voted for as president, and, in distinct ballots, the person voted for as vice president ; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such a number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed ; and if no person have such a majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately by ballot the president. But, in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote ; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice president shall act as president, as in the case of the death, or other constitutional disability of the president.

The person having the greatest number of votes as vice president, shall be the vice president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed ; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice president—a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person, constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice president of the United States.

ARTICLE XV.

If any citizen of the United States shall accept, claim, receive, or retain any title of nobility or honour ; or shall, without the consent of congress, accept and retain any present, pension, office, or emolument of any kind whatever, from any emperor, king, prince, or foreign power, such person shall cease to be a citizen of the United States, and shall be incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under them, or either of them.

WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS

TO THE PEOPLE OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.



FRIENDS AND FELLOW CITIZENS,

THE period for a new election of a citizen to administer the executive government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made.

I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country ; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service, which silence, in my situation, might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest ; no deficiency of grateful respect for your past kindness ; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you ; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty or propriety ; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that, in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have with good intentions contributed towards the organization and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself ; and every day the increasing weight of years, admonishes me more and more, that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me

as it will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country, for the many honours it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed, of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that, under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious, vicissitudes of fortune, often discouraging in situations in which, not unfrequently, want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism, the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows, that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence; that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual; that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained; that its administration, in every department, may be stamped with wisdom and virtue; that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these states, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation, and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection, and the adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop: but a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection—of no inconsiderable observation—and which appear to me all important, to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be afforded to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias his counsel: nor can I forget, as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government, which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence; the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed to weaken, in your minds, the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union, to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as

of the palladium of your political safety and prosperity ; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety ; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can, in any event, be abandoned ; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have, in a common cause, fought and triumphed together : the independence and liberty you possess, are the work of joint councils and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and successes.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest : here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds, in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise, and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefitting by the same agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow, and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated : and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communication, by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort ; and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must, of necessity, owe the secure enjoyment of indispensable outlets for its own productions, to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as one nation. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connexion with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While, then, every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find, in the united mass of means and efforts, greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations : and what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighbouring countries, not tied together by the same government ; which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues, would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty ; in this sense it is, that

your union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the union as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere?—Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case, were criminal. We are authorized to hope, that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavour to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes which may disturb our union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by geographical discriminations:—*Northern* and *Southern*:—*Atlantic* and *Western*: whence designing men may endeavour to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence within particular districts is, to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head; they have seen in the negotiation by the executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them, of a policy in the general government and in the Atlantic states, unfriendly to their interests, in regard to the *Mississippi*: they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties; that with Great Britain, and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the union by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren, and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliance, however strict between the parts, can be an adequate substitute; they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances, in all times, have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former, for an intimate union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political systems is, the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government: but, the constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obliga-

tory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government, pre-supposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force, to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community: and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans, digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests.

However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men, will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp for themselves the reins of government; destroying, afterwards, the very engines which had lifted them to unjust dominion.

Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also, that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect, in the forms of the constitution, alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember, that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human institutions; that experience is the surest standard by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitution of a country; that facility in changes, upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember, especially, that for the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigour as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you, in the most solemn manner, against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally.

The spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. It exists, under different shapes, in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but in those of the popular form it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy.

The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which, in different ages and countries, has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a frightful despotism. But this

leads, at length, to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual, and, sooner or later, the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation on the ruins of public liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind, (which, nevertheless, ought not to be entirely out of sight,) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it.

It serves always to distract the public councils, and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another; foment, occasionally, riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the government itself, through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion, that parties, in free countries, are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This, within certain limits, is probably true; and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favour upon the spirit of party. But in those of the popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be, by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

It is important likewise, that the habits of thinking, in a free country, should inspire caution in those entrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exercise of the powers of one department, to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of the public weal, against invasions by the others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern: some of them in our own country, and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers, be, in any particular, wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance, in permanent evil, any partial or transient benefit which the use can, at any time, yield.

Of all the disposition and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connexions with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked,

where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation *desert* the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principles.

'Tis substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who, that is a sincere friend to it, can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric.

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible : avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it ; avoiding, likewise, the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace, to discharge the debts, which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that, towards the payment of debts there must be revenue ; that to have revenue there must be taxes ; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant ; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects (which is always a choice of difficulties,) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may at any time, dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations ; cultivate peace and harmony with all ; religion and morality enjoin this conduct ; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt but, in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas ! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others should be excluded ; and that, in place of them, just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The nation which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is, in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another, disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute

occur. Hence frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts, through passion, what reason would reject; at other times, it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility, instigated by pride, ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

So, likewise, a passionate attachment of one nation to another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favourite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest, in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to concessions to the favourite nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the nation making the concessions; by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained, and by exciting jealousy, ill will, and a disposition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld; and it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens (who devote themselves to the favourite nation) facility to betray, or sacrifice the interest of their own country, without odium, sometimes even with popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, or infatuation.

As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practise the art of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of a small or weak, towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter.

Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence (I conjure you to believe me, fellow citizens) the jealousy of a free people ought to be *constantly* awake; since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it. Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike for another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. Real patriots, who may resist the intrigues of the favourite, are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people, to surrender their interests.

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connexion as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith.—Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not

far off when we may defy material injury from external annoyance ; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected ; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation ; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation ? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground ? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humour, or caprice ?

'Tis our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world ; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it ; for let me not be understood as capable of patronising infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, and a liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand ; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favours or preferences ; consulting the natural course of things ; diffusing and diversifying, by gentle means, the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing : establishing, with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinions will permit, but temporary, and liable to be, from time to time, abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate ; constantly keeping in view, that 'tis folly in one nation to look for disinterested favours from another ; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character ; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favours, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect, or calculate upon real favours from nation to nation. 'Tis an illusion, which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish ; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations ; but if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good ; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigues, to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism ; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare by which they have been dictated.

How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records, and other evidences of my conduct, must witness to you and the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22d of

April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your representatives in both houses of congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me, uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.

After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it with moderation, perseverance, and firmness.

The considerations which respect the right to hold this conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that, according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all.

The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose on every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations.

The inducements of interest, for observing that conduct, will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been, to endeavour to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress, without interruption, to that degree of strength and consistency, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

Though in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error, I am, nevertheless, too sensible of my defects, not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope, that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it which is so natural to a man, who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; I anticipate, with pleasing expectation, that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever favourite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labours, and dangers.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

United States, 17th September, 1796.

[This address the father of his country wrote on resigning his office as president of the United States, September, 1796. The motive of his writing was, his parental anxiety, lest his countrymen should on some future occasion, forget those maxims of virtue and prudence, from which their prosperous condition had arisen, and with the neglect of which he knew it must decline. These maxims Americans should learn in youth, and practise in later life.]

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